

THEORETICAL FIRST-PERMANENT RESIDUES BASED ON
QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF POPULATION MODELS, RESIDUES,
AND ESTIMATES OF CUMULATIVE EXPOSURE BASED ON THE PREVIOUS
THEORETICAL FIRST-PERMANENT RESIDUES (1980)

Abstract

A RESOLUTION PRESENTED TO THE SENATE COUNCIL BY
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BOND OF WATER OF FLORIDA

Abstract

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate Council
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TEMPERATURE, HAT REGULATION, DECISION MAKING, AND
QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF POPULATION GROWTH, MIGRATION,
AND EXTINCTION OF *Thryothorus niger* AND ITS PREDATOR,
Myiarchus cinerascens (Gambel)

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Population biology, ecology and dynamics of the temperate zone
bird, *Thryothorus niger* Bach, and its predator, *Myiarchus cinerascens*
(Baird), in deciduous forests were studied and their responses to quantitative,
spatial variation, habitats, and seasonal changes were established.

Three experiments of either factorial or completely randomized block
designs were used to collect data on basic biology, population potential,
and ecological interactions useful for pest management. The methodology
used in this study included correlation coefficients and partial correlation
coefficients, regression models, and mathematical model of *Thryothorus*.
In addition, relatively well-developed mathematical theories, such as
calculus and differential equations were used. The analyses were designed
to show how quantitative mathematical models could be used to model the
Thryothorus system involving the predator-prey-host plant for the purpose

of developing a practical pest management program.

Satisfactory control of the spider mite population and a good plant condition as defined by plant leaf count were achieved from periodic releases at a 1:10 ratio. The threshold and dynamic responses of spider mites as well as their predator populations suggested that timing of acaricide should be applied at narrow intervals. Data also showed that *E. allardi* could be a promising alternative control measure to chemical control.

'Host plant capacity' and 'tolerance capacity' of strawberry plants to the imported spider mite population density were studied. A 'good host capacity' was determined to be 11 to 20 mites per leaf and 'tolerance capacity' to be 3 to 8 mites per leaf from four regression lines.

Regulatory densities of two generations of imported spider mite and its predator, *E. allardi*, were used to estimate the best initial predator-prey ratio (1:100). This ratio (1:100) was the only one which appeared to reach the equilibrium point using the tested ratios.

Development of resistance of imported spider mite to acarid and thioacarid were measured in the laboratory and in the field. Thioacar 1.8 EC applied at 1 lb a/ha is the best acaricide among the tested chemicals. Among all the acaricides and thioacarid (ac) combinations, the combination of thioacar 1.8 EC, 0.5 lb a/ha and acarid 0.5 EC, 0.5 lb a/ha was the only one which did not show any antagonistic effects.

The best pest management strategy which integrated biocontrol with soil treatment, fertilizer and plant source indicated that the greatest protection lay with a California-produced plant grown in soil treated with 0.5-1.0% with increased succulent stimulus (over 100 per plant) fertilizer

and an initial release of prothyrin at a ratio of one prothyrin to fifteen prothyrin. However, from the logarithmic regression model, the optimal plant condition can also be calculated by release of the prothyrin at a prothyrin to prothyrin ratio of 1:15 or 1:15. Prothyrin being released at higher or lower initial prothyrin-prothyrin ratio did not result in better plant condition.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of pest management is the protection of crops through the application of technology designed to optimize economic return without harm to human health and undesirable adverse effects on the environment. Several possibilities exist for the management of spider mite populations. Many successful strategies that have been developed through breeding (Hosaka and Barrett, 1975), biological control agents (Gallun et al., 1976; Fraenkel et al., 1971; Hosaka, 1971), cultural practices and genetic manipulation (Ballman, 1976; Day and Johnson, 1976; Gurr et al., 1971), and chemical applications or integration of these methods have all been used. The management of targeted spider mite populations depends upon and is facilitated by (1) adequate knowledge of the mite's biology, life history, and host-plant relationship, (2) established data on the population dynamics of the spider mite and its natural enemies as well as the interactions between predator and prey, (3) judicious use of chemical substances, (4) timing of pest management tactics.

Experiments were designed to collect data on the basic biology and ecology required for pest management. The methodology used consisted of basic statistical analysis, such as the fitting of regression models, and more relatively well-developed theories of control engineering described by differential equations or derivations thereof. The experiments and data analysis were designed to show quantitatively how mechan-

mutual modeling of biodynamic system of predator-prey-host plant relation as multi-equation system is feasible in ecological and practical point of view.

The objectives of this research and organization of results are indicated by the following chapter headings: (I) Chapter 1 describes the materials and experimental design used in this research; (II) Chapter 2 shows by quantitative and statistical approaches the significance of the initial ratio of predator-prey population as well as other factors which affect the host plant, prey and its predator population; (III) Chapter 3 deals with polynomial regression models fitted by both weighted and unweighted least squares for the purpose of estimating the host release ratio of parasite to its prey; (IV) Chapter 4 interprets the prey host capacity and influence capacity of strawberry plants under experimental conditions; (V) In Chapter 5 the accuracy of the estimation of predator-prey ratio to the ecological equilibrium that is measured by the value of frequency of linear and/or quadratic regression lines.

Selection of characters and methods for pest control are discussed in Chapters 7 and 8. Shape resistance of spider mite population to acaricides has been frequently reported [Rah-E-Sher, 1973; Ali-E-Sher and Fardoun, 1978; Ibrahim, 1979; Hassan, 1978; Hefia, 1979; Abdou and El-Gohary, 1982; Gog and Balasubram, 1984], technological tests of the level of resistance in the temperature spider mites is tested and discussed are discussed in Chapter 3. In Chapter 8, a field experiment is applied to evaluate the chemicals, tested, dissect, Q_{10} , T_{max} , T_{min} and their mixtures for their impact on the mite population. The synergistic and

entrepreneurial efforts from using tax and choice alternatives in combination are not discussed and evaluated.

Abstract

1000 1000 1000

predator, *Perissolabus maculatus* (Quels), were released singularly with a fine steel hook into each plot in sufficient number to establish the designed ratio of predator-prey. The experimental design was set out in a completely randomized block design arrangement. Two replicates of the California source and of the high mountain source level made up one of the four blocks. The remaining two blocks contained the North Carolina source at the low mountain source level (Figure 1a). GAA-3333 was applied to the plots containing the North Carolina plant source. Linsaprep was applied to one of the blocks containing the California source while arachnase was applied to the other plots containing the California plant source. Chalk, as emulsifier applied, was assigned to the North Carolina source.

Predators for release were obtained from a trapped spider with population collected as predated their home places, viz., 'Wanderer' (Quels, 1954, 1956, 1958). The first release of predator was made on January 17, 1958 and the number of signs per leaf (including both prey and predator were monitored weekly through March 15, 1958. Observations and movements of sign population were made under a 10x magnification on the plant leaves to avoid manual defoliation effects.

Experiment II

Each of the 4, 4-square-foot glass plots which are not treated with any insecticide, has an average of four level either high or low. Purple-flour, 10-0-10, at the rate of 1,000 lbs per acre and 2 lbs or 4 lbs per plot of $40\frac{1}{2}\phi$, were added every six weeks at 3' x 3' and prior to moulting. The design arrangement consisting four blocks follows a two-way classifica-

surface where standing strawberry weevil and common alfalfa weevil (Figure 3). Two blocks, one with high common alfalfa and one with low common alfalfa, were planted with strawberry plants of the California variety. The other two blocks contained strawberry plants of the North Carolina variety with a low common alfalfa level and strawberry plants of the Florida variety with a high common alfalfa level. The technique of applying fertilizers and planting and sampling of strawberry are the same as described in Experiment 1A. Unlike the blocks in Experiment 1A, which consisted of only six plants, the blocks in this experiment contained eighteen plants.

Data from both experiments were analyzed using analysis of variance techniques and the significantly different means were determined by Duncan's multiple range test and Bonferroni's test. Probability of relationships, over a period of four weeks, between population densities of predator and prey, or predator in the past and present, or prey in the past and present, and between population densities of prey and host plant condition (number of leaves per plant) as it is established by correlation coefficients. Based upon the spider mite population level and host plant condition, two regression models were fitted by both weighted and unweighted least squares methods. The least variance ratio was obtained from the regression equations.

The weighted least squares method is used for a regression analysis when the observations are correlated and/or when the variances of the observations are not all equal. The ordinary (unweighted) least squares estimation formulas are not valid in these cases, if one wishes to use

In simplified food systems systems, the original observations have to be transformed to other variables which are uncorrelated and have equal variances (Grogger and Smith, 1988). Coefficients of correlation and partial correlations were used to establish six regression models which would estimate the 'post load capacity' and 'tolerance capacity' levels of the host plant in the phytophagous site load. Seasonal density and fluctuations of predator and prey populations were used to determine which predator-prey release ratios were most likely to reach an ecological equilibrium point at the time the plant approached its maximum post carrying capacity.

The techniques used and the resulting regression models fitted were the efforts made in order to reach the following objectives: (i) to estimate the host release ratio based on plant densities, which is discussed in Chapter 4; (ii) to estimate 'post load capacity' and 'tolerance capacity' of strawberry plant, which are discussed in Chapter 5, and (iii) to establish ecological equilibrium, which is discussed in Chapter 6.

Experiment 1

Two blocks of commercial strawberries of 'Hogan' variety were planted at the University of Florida Agricultural and Research Experiment Station at Brooksville, Florida, during mid October of 1977. Each block consists of sixteen beds with three 3' x 2' plots in each bed in a plot arrangement very similar to the illustration in Figure 1a. Fertilizer, 10-0-15, at a rate of 1,000 lbs per acre, was added every two weeks at each bed prior to mulching. Two rows of other plants each were set on 10' center through plastic polyethylene which on a raised bed of loose sand. The

the blocks were sprayed weekly with sodium and doublet₂, respectively, from January 15 to March 16, 1974. A LC_{50} test with each of the treatments was conducted in the laboratory before each weekly spraying. Within twenty-four hours after the LC_{50} test of each week, the earthclods were sprayed with a hand sprayer at a dosage equivalent to 100 gal water per acre and at a concentration equivalent to LC_{50} of the last testing. The LC_{50} test was conducted in the following manner: Young females, selected within twenty-four hours, were surface-killed with a 15-in. beam leaf from each plot. The females were kept fresh in plastic water-tubs (manufactured by Sporthette Sales, Inc., Kansas, Indiana). Fifty young females from the same block were mounted on a piece of double-faced tape, stuck on a microscope, under a 10 x dissecting scope with a 30 x 50 steel hair brush. The slides were mounted after and coming-up in five rows of ten each. The slides with slides were kept on a slide holder and placed in a desiccator in which was kept a tray of water and a 5% of 50-100% wet saturated the earthclods, sodium and doublet₂, were dissolved in acetone to make a methylalcohol stock solution. They were further diluted with a solvent of 1:1 acetone:1 water which was desired concentration (Saha, 1970). When all the required number of slides with slides were prepared, the slides of slides from each block were individually dipped in their respective solutions of wettest concentrations for ten minutes. The treated slides with slides were also kept in a desiccator with 50-100% relative humidity. The entire LC_{50} test was conducted at a temperature of $27 \pm 2^\circ C$. Mortality was counted under a 10 x magnification twenty-four hours after dipping. If a slide was tightly covered with a comb hair brush not at exposure of young legs were found, it was counted as dead.

The data were analyzed for $15^{\frac{1}{2}}$ by using linear regression (SAS Handbook, 1985).

Experiment 3

Commercial "Hoop" strawberries were planted in old decidua, 1973 through black plastic polyethylene which on raised beds of loam used at University of Florida Agriculture Research and Education Center, Gainesville, Florida. Fertilizer (15-8-25) was applied at a rate of 1,000 lbs per acre in a band on the beds prior to mulching. The plots were arranged in double rows of ten plants each set in 12' sections in a randomized block design. Aerial dusts were applied weekly with a hand sprayer at a dosage equivalent to 100 gallons of water per acre on January 25, February 8, 21, and March 5, 1974 to the plots.

Experiment 3a

Each plot received dusted, wet, or a combination of treatments (Table 12). In order to avoid possible incompatibility of the legendants in a mixture, whenever possible, multiple concentrations (21) were added as were wettable powders (28). Spider mite populations were added on January 25, 31, February 8, 25, and March 5, 1974. Ten strawberry leaves from different plants were randomly taken from each plot, and mites were brushed from the leaves with a handbrush-vacuum machine onto a glass plate. Population counts were made under a 10x magnification.

Experiment 3b

Two rates of organic (Gardol[®]) were tested in addition to the previous standards (Table 12). Mite populations were determined from ten

losses from each plot by counts made under 10 \times magnification. Samples of January 29 were taken immediately before the chemical spray and were used as a correction factor. Therefore, samples were taken on January 30, 31, February 1, 3, 4, and 6 to measure the response of spider mite population following treatment. The data were transformed to a corrected mortality of spider mite population due to the chemical by use of the modified Abbott's formulae R_1 , R_2 , and R_3 (Southwood and Tillies, 1955):

If T_0 is the average number of mites per leaf per plot before treatment, T_1 the average number of mites per leaf per plot after treatment, T_2 is the mean number of mites per leaf per 3 plots from the check plots before the treatment, T_3 is the mean number of mites per leaf per 3 plots from the check plots after the treatment, R_1 is the average number of mites per leaf per plot at day 1, at day 3, or day 6 after the treatment, R_2 is the average number of mites per leaf per plot at day 3 after the treatment, R_{31} is the mean number of mites per leaf per 3 plots from the check plots at day 1, day 3, or day 6 after the treatment, and R_3 is the mean number of mites per leaf per 3 plots at day 3 after the treatment, then

$$[A] \text{ Actual number of mites per leaf} = \frac{T_0 + T_1}{R_1}$$

[B] Estimated percentage mortality from the initial population

$$= \frac{T_0 - T_1}{T_0} \times \frac{R_1}{R_2} \times 100$$

[C] Estimated percentage recovery from the third day after treatment

$$= \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1} \times 100 \times \frac{R_{31}}{R_3}$$

Despite data from Experiment 2b and 3b were tested for significance through an analysis of variance and significant results were determined using both Bonferroni's multiple range test and Newman's test. Data of Experiment 3b were used to determine the spontaneous or anticipatory effects of students.

CHAPTER 3
REGULATION OF THE GROWTH OF THE PLANT
AND THE EFFECT OF THE PLANT ON THE
GROWTH OF THE PLANT

The importance of phytoseiid as predators of plant-feeding mite species has been recognized for years. However, in-depth studies of these predators and their prey relations are limited to population dynamics with little consideration on host plant reactions. Studies in Europe with *Diplocephalus pinnipalpis* Aulius-formica (Gugliano, 1958; Karsont, 1961; Lipe, 1975; Aronson et al., 1978; Soper, 1981) and in the United States with *Diplocephalus* (affiliated α_1 , α_2) (1979; Karsont α_1 , α_2 , 1980; Soper and Karsont, 1980; Soper α_1 , α_2 , 1980; Soper α_1 , α_2 , 1980a, 1980b) indicate that timely releases of predator mites would be of value in managing integrated spider mite populations on crops of high economic value, such as strawberries, tomatoes, and vegetables. Perry and Hasey (1977) showed that the density of the predator *Hypoaspis* *pinnipalpis* at introduction was critical to spider mite control. The spider mite population increases at a rate of $\lambda_0 = 4.20$ (Soper α_1 , α_2 , 1980a). Therefore the number of predators released to prey present [1 to M] can be fine-tuned by simple mathematical calculation based on the intrinsic rate of increase of the predator and prey populations. The optimal ratio of predator released to prey present should be higher than the Perry and Hasey's studies indicated.

In order to establish an effective post management strategy using a behavioral control model, a thorough understanding of the history of

the producer and its interaction with the crop and other various design and practices is essential. Effective control of spider mite by producer also depends on producer knowledge of transmission, and on understanding the correct balance between producer and crop (Barnett, 1971; Harvey *et al.*, 1980; Hart and Harvey, 1982).

Leaf count has been used to indicate the effect of spider mite density on plant condition. Success or transpiration of strawberry plants generally develop their leaves and leaf area before establishment or expansion of roots (Pitts, 1932). Hart and Hall (1982) reported that the root growth of strawberry becomes most active after a quiescent period of shoots, leaves, and flowers. Also, following a rapid root outburst period of new leaf and flower formation strawberry plants reach their highest dry weight during fruiting season. Distortion of leaves is usually caused by nematodes, disease or mechanical injury. Fulton (1964) showed that distortion of leaves by a pathogenic disease resulted in severe decrease in yield. The distortion and loss of leaves and their susceptibility to pathogen is perhaps well inhibited or enhanced by spider mite damage. Since spider mite damage on strawberry plants results directly in reduction of leaves and indirectly in reduction of root mass, dry weight, and yield, it seems proper to compare plant condition in relation with spider mite density in number of leaves per plant.

In this chapter, the response of spider mite population and plant condition to different producer population densities, various stress levels, host plant sources, varieties and their interactions are studied.

The purpose of this chapter is to determine the various level of predator release depending upon initial number of spider sites in the field. In order to achieve an efficient and realistic model of unspotted spider sites in a simulated strawberry grove. In addition, factors influencing the population level of prey such as soil characteristics, temperature and moisture of nursery plants, as well as the interaction between these factors and predator effect were investigated for practical use in pest management.

Materials and Methods

The materials and methods are as described in Experiment 18 and Experiment 19 in Chapter 2. Data from Experiment 18 were also plotted in a two-dimensional diagram to show the responses of leaf plant condition, unspotted spider site population densities, and *P. maculipes* population densities to initial predator release ratios (Figures 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6).

The combined effects of initial predator release ratios on unspotted spider site population densities and plant condition are interpreted by an effective index which is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Effective Index} = \left[\frac{\text{Observed average number of leaves per plant in predator introduced field} - \text{Observed average number of leaves in control plots}}{\text{Weekly average number of spider sites in predator introduced plots} - \text{Weekly average number of spider sites in control plots}} \right]$$

Results

Release Ratio Experiments

The population densities of all stages of the mite and the number of larvae per plant for ten consecutive weeks are shown in Figures 2, 3, 4, and Table 1, for five predator-prey release ratios. Seasonal mean densities of unspotted spider mite populations associated with the initial release ratio was 1/20. This is about three times the population density of the control plots, where no predator is released (Table 1). The best plant condition, indicated by the smallest number of larvae per plant, was found where one predator was released for every sixteen prey. The number of larvae on these plants was about double the number on the control plot and the 1:1 release ratio plot (Table 1). A positive correlation between the ratio of predators released at introduction and the seasonal average number of predators is found in all predator release plots except the 1:16 plot (Table 1). For example, the plot with the highest ratio of predators released at introduction has the highest seasonal number of predators found. Statistically, there are no significant differences in the weekly plant response to the different initial predator ratios, but there are differences when averages are based on the seasonal cumulative effects (Appendices 2, 3, and 4).

From the observations in Experiment 1b, the seasonal average number for the egg stage is much higher than that of individuals of all active stages within the same spider mite population. The numbers of eggs and all active stages are 20.8 ± 0.1 and 5.4 ± 0.4 ($\bar{x} \pm SE$), respectively.

The number of eggs is significantly greater than the number of individuals of all active stages ($t = 3.33$, $p = 0.001$). Under the probable released condition (Experiment 1a), the number of individuals in the active stages is higher than the number in the egg stage in all active but 1-18 (Table 1). In the control plot (Experiment 1b), the number of spider mite eggs is about twice that of the combined active stages, whereas in predator introduced condition, the active stages ($\bar{x} = 124.6$) are about twice as numerous as eggs ($\bar{x} = 55.0$). The plant condition on all predator release plots and the control plots declined during the first four weeks then began to improve with the fifth week (Figures 3, 4) Spider Mite Population Density Response to Released Release Racco and The Presence of Host Plant Condition

The population density of spider mites responded significantly to the predator density at the introduction as did the predator population in the spider mite density (Figures 3, 5, 6, Appendix 1, 2). All spider mite populations increased in all release mite except the 1-18 mite, 1-18 only a predator to prey density of 1:1 would eliminate the spider mite population within a week (Figures 3a, 3b, 3c). The average time required for predators to reduce the spider mite population to less than twenty to thirty individuals per leaf (Experiment 1) was about ten weeks, however the 1:1 ratio required about three weeks (Figure 4) Spider mite population density in the control plot reduced rapidly and reached a population also less than twenty to thirty individuals at the second week because of the condition of the host plants (Figure 5d).

The population of spider mites in all plots was suppressed to under thirty individuals per leaf for four weeks and then the population increased at week six. The population densities at week eight dropped

under the 'great herb impact' of the secondary plant (Chapter 5). The initial values of λ_{11} and λ_{12} were not decreased (Figures 2a, 2b, & 2c). The spider mite population-density which crashed resulted from the too much high density in the host plants (Figures 1a, 1b, & 1c). Although the host plants recovered within three to four weeks after the population crash, the spider mite population did not correspondingly increase (Figure 1f).

The relationships between the population density in the present week and that in past weeks are shown in Table 8. There is a positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.17$) between population densities of spider mites of two consecutive weeks, and they are significantly correlated to each other ($P = 0.05$). Negative correlations between mite densities with a two-week difference were not significant at 5% level ($P = 0.40$). A highly significant correlation coefficient (0.32 , $P = 0.01$) was found between mite density with a three-week difference, but there was very little correlation between those with a four-week difference (Table 8). These data indicate that the population density of spider mites fluctuates around a two-week cycle (Figures 1 & 5).

The plant condition was not significantly affected by the magnitude of compressed spider mite population density as shown by the small negative correlation values (Table 8, Figure 6). The correlation coefficients between present plant condition and the population density of the spider mite of the past four weeks as well as the present week were negative. But, although the correlations were small, the magnitude of the

correlation between the present plant condition and the spider site population of the past four weeks appeared to increase. Starting with a correlation of $r = -0.09$ for the previous week, the correlations were $r = -0.09$, $r = -0.14$, and $r = -0.05$ for the previous second, third, and fourth weeks, respectively. Although the present spider site population was not correlated with the previous density of the previous week, it was significantly correlated to the predator population of the present week (Table 7).

Weekly Increases of Predator Population in First Density

One third of the total contribution to the average association coefficient (25.1%) was found between predator populations of two consecutive weeks. However, there was an evidence that population density of the present week was correlated to the population density beyond the second week (Table 7).

The population density of the predator next likely depended on the prey density at the present week or during the past two weeks. The tendency was determined from the correlation coefficients (Table 7). Average coefficients between present predator density corresponding to the spider site densities of present, one, and two weeks past were 0.09 ± 0.45 , 0.05 ± 0.41 , and 0.14 ± 0.03 ($N = 35$), respectively. There was no evidence to suggest that a correlation existed between population densities of prey and predator with a 3- or 4-week difference.

The predator density at introduction does influence its removal average (Table 1, Equation 3), but the responses were not a linear function of the predator release ratio. The highest average number of predation for the entire study period was found at a ratio of 1:10 at the

time of introduction, overabundance there was an significant response (average maximal number of predators) difference between predator release ratios of 1/2 and 5/24.

Predator density was directly correlated to the population density of its prey but was not significantly correlated to the distance from plant condition (Table 2). A negative correlation coefficients was found between the plant condition and the predator population of the past four weeks (Table 2). This was due to a predator density that was already correlated to the density of its prey.

The density of predators after eggs reached a peak within one week after release and then declined during the second week (Figure 3a). The number of individuals of active stages in the highest initial predator release plots (3/4, 1/2, 5/16) were increased to their peak within 1 or 2 weeks after introduction. The active stages with a population density of 5/24 reached their peak at the third week instead of the second week (Figure 3). The predator population of introduction showed a functional response to its initial density at introduction (Figure 3a, 3).

Effects of Smutblades and the Interaction with Predators on the Density of Introduction on Strawberry Plant Condition and Size Density

Effects of smutblades and the interaction with predator release ratio on plant condition and size densities are shown in Tables 4 and 5. Along the smutblades treatment, the plant condition was reduced most and the peak population decreased most by 50%-100% 100%. When compared to the check plots, the number of larvae on the 50%-100% treated plants was about three times and roughly 1.5 times as many in

the nitrogen-applied plots. No difference was observed between the check and carbofuran plots (Table 4). The carbofuran treated plots which had about 3.2 percent spider mites per leaf had the highest spider mite density among the untreated treated plots, while 004-0022 treated plots had 3.4 percent average mites per leaf (Table 4). There was no direct effect of abscisic on the seasonal population density of predatory mite (Table 4). The seasonal interaction between acaricides and predatory mite release rates and their effect on the plant condition are shown in Table 4.

Among the acaricide treatments, the best groups of plant conditions were found in plants being treated with 004-0022 and predatory mite release at rates of 1:1, 1:4, 1:20 and the worst groups of plant condition were found in plants that were treated with carbofuran and a ratio of 1:4 mite density: nitrogen at rates of 1:22 mite density: and check plants. In carbofuran check and no predator release plants (Table 4) minimal spider mite densities were found in all check plots, while the greatest densities were found in plots of 004 with 1:4, 004 with 1:16, nitrogen with 1:16, and carbofuran with 1:20.

Influence of Fertilizer Level, Plant Source, and the Interaction with Predator Release Rates on Strawberry Plant Condition, and on Mite Population Density

Influence of fertilizer, plant source and the interaction with predator release rates on plant condition and mite densities are shown in Tables 3 and 5.

Fertilizer Level. Each additional liter (6.6 lbs per plot of $MgSO_4$ includes 1,355 lbs per acre of 10-5-20 fertilizer) resulted in a greater number of leaves per plant and in lower spider mite and higher predatory

slips available over the season (Table 2), i.e., the higher ratio of cover when climate level produced the better plant condition and biological pest management was more effective on these plants.

Plant Source: The 'Toga' strawberry plants obtained from California appeared much healthier than the plants from North Carolina (Table 2). Strawberry plants from Florida were more susceptible to spider mites and had a higher population density of mites than either California or North Carolina plants (Table 2). The North Carolina strawberry plant sources supported a higher predator density than plants from California or Florida (Table 2).

The studies on the interaction of plant source and predator release ratio on the best plant condition showed that California with 1:15 ratio combination was the best treatment combination (34.8 leaves per plant) and this was followed by treatment combination of California at 1:10 and North Carolina at 1:8 release ratio (Table 2). The interaction of plant source and release ratio on the pest population was irregular on plants from North Carolina. However, on the California plants the influence of predator release ratio on the accumulated prey density was significant (Table 2). The California with a 1:4 ratio treatment combination was the best for suppression of the spider mite population, and the California at 1:4 was the poorest (Table 2). Predator density was not affected by any treatment combination (Table 2).

Stomach Contents and Survival

Although weekly measurements of the pest and predator population density and best plant condition (number of leaves per plant) did not

differ significantly, the cumulative marginal effects rule is clear that the complex interactions existing among experimental factors should be efficiently handled on plant condition and predator and prey population (Appendices 2, 3, and 4, Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6). Implications from the analysis of variances are that the independent effects of the experimental variables (predator release ratios, omnivorous insect levels, amount of the sticky plants, and susceptible treatments) are different for each combination of variables, and hence, may be studied independently. Independent Effects of Experimental Variables

Effect of Initial predator release ratio. The mathematical expression which best describes indirect response of plant condition due to the initial predator release ratio takes the form of a quadratic function, i.e., the ratio of 1/16 was the best, followed by 1/8, 1/4, 1/32, about the predator release, 4/16, and close to 1/2 (Table 1, Figure 3). Four ranks of plant condition are discernable according to predator release ratio: a) 1/16, b) 1/8 and 1/4, c) 1/4 and 1/32, and control and 1/2. It is suggested that higher predator release ratios may not be the best for the control of prey and aphid plant condition. There appears to be a limitation by applied predator release ratio (1/16) for control of aphid and population in order to facilitate the best management strategy. A predator release ratio of pygmygiant is discussed in Chapter 5. The same spider mite population density that occurred on leaves can be grouped into five ranks of check (1/32), b) 1/8 and 1/4, c) 1/4, 1/16, d) 1/32 and 1/16, and e) 1/8. Although check plots showed the lowest spider mite density over the season, the maximal plant condition was reached at the start; whereas 1/32 and 1/16 predator release ratios showed the highest spider

also develop. There is no simple relation to measure and determine which predator release rate of introduction is the best for pest management purposes. However, the 'effective index' shows that the greatest potential this is 1:14 predator release ratio (Figure 1). Therefore, the best predator release ratio for control of *Leptoglossus oryzae* based on the relationship of plant condition in this study was 1:14.

Table 3 shows the highest mean of predator density over the season in 1981. There was no significant difference among 1:4, 1:6, 1:8, and 1:14 ratios of predator release plots (Tables 1 and 2). The behavior and functional responses of the predator to prey populations will be explained later.

Effect of entomopath. The condition of plants treated with OGA-1000 was far superior to those treated with either entomop or carbofuran, because of their influence on mite population (Table 4). Entomop was only slightly effective on suppression of mite population. As for effect on pest and predator population, OGA-1000 suppressed both spider mite and predatory mite populations, as did entomop (Table 4), whereas carbofuran did not suppress either spider mite or predatory mite populations (Table 4). According to the pest management (prevalence) value in Table 4, OGA-1000 is the best chemical to use in an integrated pest control management program for spider mites.

Effect of fertilizers. The higher ammonia sulfate level of four lbs per plot enhanced plant condition, reflected by the number of leaves per plant, but there was no evidence that ammonia sulfate level influenced pest populations. Comparisons of predator population densities over the season for the two different fertilizing levels showed that the high rate of ammonia sulfate was superior to the low rate in suppressing predatory

develop. Even though the pest population density on plants grown on top and high mountain altitude levels was smaller, the number of leaves per plant was much greater at the higher levels.

Effect of plant source. The average number of leaves on the California produced plants was higher than that on plants from North Carolina, and seasonal pest population densities on both the California and the North Carolina sources were much less than those on the Florida produced plants. Although the California strawberry plants supported higher spider mite populations than those of the North Carolina plants, this source was more tolerant to mite damage than the North Carolina source as indicated by the plant condition in Table 2.

Consequently, the best pest management strategy integrating biological control with soil treatment, fertilizer and plant source indicates that the greatest potential lies with a California produced plant grown in soil treated with 500-1000_g and frequent ammonia sprays (four lbs per plant) fertilizer and an initial release of predator at a ratio of one predator to sixteen prey.

Interactions Among the Experimental Variables

Comparison of interactions among plant condition, pest population density and predator release ratio is very complicated. Therefore, the interactions of each variable with initial predator release ratio will be considered.

Effect of initial predator release ratio and plant source. Comparison of seasonal plant condition and pest population density showed that a 1:16 predator release ratio on the California grown plants was the best combination and a 8 predator release ratio on the North Carolina grown plants was the poorest combination (Table 2). However, when com-

small responses of the plant (i.e., leaf number) are plotted against the initial predator release ratios, the plotted graph is a normal bell-shaped distribution for a given source of plants, California or North Carolina. The California plants with a 1:16 release ratio had the highest spider mite population count and the California plants with 1:1, 1:4, 1:16, 1:32 had the lowest counts with the exception of the control plot. Therefore, it is evident that the California plants which have both higher leaf count and mite populations have a higher tolerance level to mite damage at a higher recovery rate after damage by spider mites than the other plants tested. This indicates that the California plants have a high pest load capacity to the spider mite population. Another high and low initial predator release ratio plots showed that a good plant condition could be associated with spider mite density (Figure 2). The check plot of the North Carolina plants which had low spider mite density and few leaves per plant indicated that a small seasonal spider mite density was not necessarily the result of predator suppression of the spider mite population. Low populations also result from desiccation of plants due to earlier damage by high spider mite density with long periods of damage (Figure 11).

Effect of initial predator release ratio and nematode. Better plant condition was obtained in plants treated with GAB-1000 nematode and 1:4, 1:16, and 1:32 initial predator release. All combination of nematode and predator density were much better than the control when plant condition was assessed. The nematode applied prior to releasing had no influence on the predator population, but did have an influence on the host plant and the spider mite population. The nematode GAB-1000 is the best for enhancing plant condition and preventing desiccation of plants through the control of mites, nematodes, and anti-biocontrol

found. Among the various combinations, DDA-DDDD with 1:20 through 1:60 initial predator release ratios resulted in the best plant condition.

The spider mite population during the study period on DDA-DDDD sprayed plants regardless of predator introduction densities was highest among all the treatment combinations. In addition to the effectiveness of DDA-DDDD in preventing plant deterioration, it is also seen that entrapment and asphyxiation have a significant influence on enhancement of plant condition (Table 4). The DDA-DDDD with 1:6 to 1:20 initial predator release ratios were the combinations contributing to the best plants. The enhanced plant condition was able to support a high spider mite increase rate. With a high spider mite increase rate, the initial predator release ratios are proved the spider mite populations from reaching the injury threshold. The lowest spider mite densities and the worst plant condition were found in an acaricide treated and no predator release plots. Consequently, the best combination of acaricides and initial predator release ratios would be able to enhance the plant condition, but did not necessarily have the lowest spider mite density. These combinations (DDA-DDDD with 1:6, 1:10, or 1:20) provide sufficient control of spider mites below a threshold, and consequently, suppress the maximum average spider mite population to less than thirteen individuals per leaf. The effect of mite suppression is to allow maximum enhancement to the plant condition (Figures 2, 3, and 4). With the other treatment combinations, either the initial predator release ratios are too low to obtain sufficient control of spider mite populations to thus to prevent irreversible damage (Figure 2) or the initial predator release ratios are too high, resulting in over rapid multiplication of prey as to threaten

by predator starvation and attrition. Surviving spider sites at mid-points thus initiate new colonies. The new populations free their predators from high densities which resulted in decreased plant condition (Figure 10).

Functional Response and Response of Host and Predator Population and Plant Condition

The host plant condition of the strawberry plant, i.e. the number of active photosynthesizing leaves, is negatively correlated with the magnitude of the spider site density in the plant during the previous week (Table II). The response of strawberry plants, measured by the number of leaves, to spider site density is delayed three to four weeks, i.e. the spider site population exceeds "peak leaf capacity" (Chapter II), then the plant condition is going to decrease gradually through a three to four week time interval (Figures 1a, 5b, 5c, 5d, and 5e). The converse is also true, i.e. when site population densities result in better plants than in four weeks later. The present spider site population density in the host is positively correlated with the population level in each of the past four weeks except week two. Both ρ_{12}^2 and ρ_{13}^2 (1976a) reported that the temporal spider site has a mean generation time of 11.6 days and peaks of reproduction at four to nine days after emergence of female; therefore the spider site population cycle should occur within a three-week interval. This is indicated in Table I where more than a 0.90 positive correlation coefficient exists between any two populations within a three-week interval. The correlation was also significant between two populations of the spider sites in successive weeks. The highly significant correlation between site population at a three-week and a one-week difference is due to the cyclic generation occurrence

and shorter life history of the spider mite, respectively. The negative correlation between densities of mite populations of two weeks apart may be explained based on the life history and dispersal behavior of young adult mites and the predatory behavior of *E. pergandeii*. The shortest life span of a spider mite is about seven days (Holt *et al.*, 1996). In a heavily populated strawberry plant the large number of new eggs lay over one week in about a week, thus the high density in the following week. However, young adult spider mites become highly active about a day after eclosion and wash elytras from the plant. Also the egg laying capacity of female spider mites falls drastically about ten day after eclosion. Therefore, this reduced egg production together with the mass death of offspring creates a very low population density two weeks after the initial high density on the plant. The spider mite's predator, *E. pergandeii*, is attracted to areas of high spider mite density. This predator multiplies on the plant and after one week, when their offspring appear, reaches a high population number. Their predation also helps to reduce the spider mite population. The details of the coexistence of two populations are described in Chapter 8. Since predator population is strongly correlated with current average spider mite population for most of the seasonal average plant condition, there is no evidence to support the predator release density reduces the plant condition.

Holt *et al.* (1996) showed that *E. pergandeii* has a high population increase rate and a high potential for controlling the spider mite population. Table 2 indicates that the predator population density is significantly and positively correlated to the current prey population density and that of the preceding two weeks, but not that of three or four weeks

just. Therefore a population of spider mites may initially be free of predators, but soon present, the predators increase very rapidly and reduce the prey density within two weeks (Table 1, Figure 1).

The practical strategy for spider mite control in strawberry is to maintain the spider mite population instead of eliminating it. Even though the population density of spider mites at the beginning of the experiment was high, satisfactory control of the spider mite population and a good plant condition were achieved from predators released at a 1:10 ratio. The functional and dynamic responses of spider mites as well as their predator populations suggested that the timing of acaricide applications are very important. In order to maintain the effect of the predators mites, we can suppress the spider mites if an acaricide is applied at two-week intervals instead of one-week intervals. An alternative control measure to chemical control is a promising predator *E. gregaria* for spider mite control in strawberry (Okinaka et al., 1996). However, the timing and release technique for using *E. gregaria* needs to be confirmed. *E. gregaria*, obtained at low prey density would definitely conserve the cost of rearing and labor to release them but the techniques would require close monitoring of field populations.

CHAPTER 4

THE INTERACTION OF SEED PREDATORS WITH PREDATORS IN CONSIDERING THE EFFECTS OF THE SEED, THE PREDATOR, AND THE SEEDLING

Predator density is critical to the successful recruitment of spider mites. Rosenblatt (1971) showed that the predation potential of *Tetranychus bimaculatus* (Walton) is a logistic function, but predation rate increased when prey density increased to an upper limit. Rosenblatt (1971) reported that spider mite control by phytosemites was possible with *E. andersoni* as a large mite in Sweden. Gilling and Eklund (1974) studied the functional and numerical responses of the predator mite, *E. andersoni*, *Ectoseius maculatus* (Walton), and *Phytoseius abnormis* (Rosen), and showed that there were no prey-predator interference effects. The prey-predator interactions were plotted as dome-shaped response curves described by Holling (1959). Rosenblatt (1971) reported that *Phytoseius bimaculatus* (Walton) will reduce natural populations of *E. andersoni* over a range of densities, provided that suitable temperature conditions prevail for a sufficient time. Gilling et al. (1974) and Kalkreuth (1974) reported that release of 100,000 *E. andersoni* per acre significantly affected spider mite populations before the spider mite density reached one mite per leaf. However, they gave no data to show the initial density or relative population densities and ratios of predator and prey at time of release.

Successful control of spider mites depends largely on maintaining the critical balance between predator and prey with regard to initial predator-prey ratio at the time of predator introduction as previously

described in Chapter 3. Brown *et al.* (1982) and Parr and Brown (1982) indicated that initial/early spider size/weight depends upon time of predator release and density of predator at introduction. The number of predators released depended upon neither actual nor relative population density of prey, but depended upon the number of plants per glass vial at and immediately after inoculation with thirty spider mites (Parr and Brown, 1982). However, they concluded that "several" predators on every fifth plant was the most economic and effective density at introduction for control of spider mites. In this chapter, we shall attempt to evaluate the relationship between initial predator density and annual plant condition at post predation using mathematical models. The evaluation is performed by fitting the models to observed data using regression techniques.

Materials and Methods

The experimental design, materials and methods are as described in Experiment 18, Chapter 3. The model developed was based on the assumption that there is a correlation or relationship between the annual plant condition and post predation density and the predator density at introduction. A simplified hypothetical causal network using the Ragsdale⁸ 1-11 plant condition level and spider mite population density, is depicted in Figure 8. The arrows indicate direction of causation. Predatory mites directly affect spider mite density and the latter directly affects the plant condition. The plant condition indirectly responds to the predator density when the spider mite is present. These hypothetical interactions may be represented by equations 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3. In these equations, subscript 1 denotes the plot in which the value

$$\sigma_{\eta_{22}}^2$$

of the variables are determined, and η_{11} , η_{21} , and η_{22} are distributed in some form. For equations 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3, respectively, and are assumed to be a random quality coming from a normal distribution with mean zero and standard deviation σ

$$P_1 = f(\eta_1, \eta_{11}) \quad (4.1)$$

$$S_1 = f(\eta_1, \eta_{21}) \quad (4.2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_2 &= f(\eta_1, \eta_{21}) \\ &= f(f(\eta_2, \eta_{22}), \eta_{21}) \\ &= f(\eta_1, \eta_{21}) \end{aligned} \quad (4.3)$$

In equations 4.1 and 4.2 respectively, P_1 and S_1 are considered as endogenous variables, and S and P as predetermined variables. In other words, P_1 and S_1 are determined by S and P respectively through the functional relationships. In a real world situation, the observed results are not of the direct effects of predetermined variables as endogenous variables. For example, the plot condition observed in plot 5 is the sum of the negative indirect effects of spider mite feeding density and the positive indirect effect of predator density which arises because of the spider mite density. However, for simplification, we shall assume the plot condition only as the effect of the predetermined variables of predator density.

A triple with functional specification was used in the study to measure the effects of predetermined variables on endogenous variables.

The model equations presented for discussion are below:

$$\bar{Y}_1 = \bar{Y}_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_1^2 + \beta_3 \bar{X}_1^3 + \epsilon_1 \quad (3.4)$$

$$\bar{Y}_2 = \bar{Y}_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_1^2 + \beta_3 \bar{X}_1^3 + \epsilon_2 \quad (3.5)$$

Where:

\bar{Y}_1 = seasonal average number of leaves per plant,

\bar{Y}_2 = seasonal average number of spider mites per leaf

\bar{X}_1 = tiller position density times 32 at introduction,
i.e., (number of production/tuber at prep) x 32.

β_1 = the effect or average influence on \bar{Y}_1 of a unit change in \bar{X}_1 when all other X 's are fixed.

ϵ_1 = disturbance term or random error, assumed to be normally distributed with mean equal to 0 and variance equal to σ^2 .

Table 1 gives the mean and standard deviation of the values corresponding to each tiller position density. The observations with the large value of the standard deviation are considered or assumed to be less reliable than are the others with smaller standard deviation values. In the regression analysis therefore, a weighted least square analysis is performed to adjust for the lack of repeatability of each production variable (Dropt and Smith, 1968). Also, a corresponding unweighted least square analysis is performed to allow a comparison with the unweighted regression model to be made.

Results and Discussion

Polynomial regression analysis using weighted and unweighted least squares produced four regression lines that depict some relationship between the dependent variables (seasonal average number of leaves per

plant and estimated average number of spiders eaten per leaf] and the 'independent variable' [predator:prey ratio at introduction]. These four multiple regression lines were

Model 1. Weighted regression line for plant condition

$$\begin{aligned} Y_1 = & 25.1156 + 4.4886 (x + 30) + 0.4079 (x + 30)^2 \\ & + 0.0901 (x + 30)^3 \end{aligned} \quad (4.6)$$

$$r^2 = 0.99$$

$$F < 0.16 \quad (P\text{-value} = 1.26\%)$$

Where

Y_1 = estimated average number of leaves per plant.

X = initial predator:prey ratio (number of predators/number of prey at introduction).

Model 2. Weighted regression line for plant condition

$$\begin{aligned} Y_2 = & 21.8796 + 4.3486 (x + 30) + 1.1478 (x + 30)^2 \\ & + 0.0913 (x + 30)^3 \end{aligned} \quad (4.7)$$

$$r^2 = 0.99$$

$$F < 0.29 \quad (P\text{-value} = 1.91\%)$$

Where Y_1 and X are as defined in Model 1

Model 3. Weighted regression line for spider size density.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_3 = & 26.8764 + 4.4543 (x + 30) + 0.2412 (x + 30)^2 \\ & + 0.0154 (x + 30)^3 \end{aligned} \quad (4.8)$$

$$r^2 = 0.96$$

$$F < 0.89 \quad (P\text{-value} = 11.61\%)$$

where

- \bar{y}_2 = annual average number of spider mites per leaf,
 k = initial predator-prey ratio (number of predators/number of
 prey at introduction)

Model 4. Weighted regression line for spider mite density.

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{y}_2 &= 26.1128 + 4.6997 (0 \times 10) + 1.6946 (0 \times 10)^2 \\ &\quad + 0.0021 (0 \times 10)^3\end{aligned}\quad (4.2)$$

$$R^2 = 0.111$$

$$F = 0.10 \quad D\text{-value} = 0.110$$

where \bar{y}_2 and k are as defined in Model 3.

The maximum number (the minimum number of larvae per plant (plant small size)) can be calculated from equations 4.1 and 4.2 by setting the first derivatives of these equations equal to zero and solving them. Because the R-square value of the equation 4.2 (weighted least square model) is small, only the original regression model, i.e. equation 4.1 was used to calculate the best release ratio corresponding to the optimum plant condition. The first derivative of equation 4.1 is

$$y' = \frac{dy}{d(0 \times 10)} = 4.6997 + 1.6946 (0 \times 10) + 0.0063 (0 \times 10)^2$$

and upon setting the derivative equal to zero, the resulting values (zeros) of (0×10) are

$$(0 \times 10) = 13.885 \quad \text{and} \quad (0 \times 10) = 3.8616$$

The values of the release ratios R and the corresponding optimized plant condition values are

$$R = 13.265/31 = 0.428 \text{ (predator/prey)}, \quad T = 16.147$$

$$R = 3.854/31 = 0.124 \text{ (predator/prey)}, \quad T = 33.473$$

Based on these values the optimized optimal habitat predator to prey ratio as introduction, derived from the equation 4.6 or plant condition, is 1:4.285 (Figure 18)

Model 4 has small frequency (2.15%) and T (3.116) values (Figure 16) and is consequently not discussed. However, it is used to perform a comparison with the weighted regression model. The released spider alive density is positively correlated with released plant condition as was discussed in Chapter 3. Therefore the choice of best predator-prey ratio as predator release is dependent upon (I) the highest released average population density of spider alive, which is always fixed with the best plant condition, because of the potential support a healthy plant offers to pests, and (II) the predicted upper limit of released spider alive density, which equals against the highest released spider alive density free any given release ratio. This upper limit is estimated to be 1.6 (predator/prey) (Figure 16) from equation 4.6, which is solved in the same way as equation 4.4. In conclusion, the optimal plant condition can be calculated by release of the predator at a predator to prey ratio of either 1:4 or 1:6 as introductions depending upon whether the plant condition is the response observed or density of spider alive is the dependent response. Predators being released at higher or lower initial predator-prey ratios do not result in better plant condition.

CHAPTER 3
CAPACITY OF EDAPHIC PLANTS TO WITHSTAND INCREASED SPINER
MITE, *TETRANNOBUS BIPARTITUS* AGON

Quantitative research has been done in population ecology. The following pertinent theories of Haldane, Lotka-Wright and Birch, Elton, Shitty, and Flinnel are discussed. (i) Haldane (1934) indicated that an animal population might be regulated by biologically competition, i.e., by 'regulation' necessary for the growth and multiplication of organisms, and used the term, 'density factors', for the functional relations which exist between organisms and the population members of that species. (ii) Lotka-Wright and Birch (1950) stated that animal populations might be limited in three ways: (1) by shortage of resources, (2) by limited-ability of those material resources relative to the animal's capacities for dispersal and searching, and (3) by shortage of time when the biologic rate of increase is positive. (iii) Elton (1933a, 1933b, 1938) emphasized the influence of environmental conditions by stressing the negative density relationship as means for natural control. (iv) Shitty (1934) reported that a population is numerically 'self-regulating' through a genetically-induced ability which may be termed as the average stability of the individuals in a population and population density. (v) Flinnel (1941) explained animal adaptations between the inherent properties of species and their food resources or natural enemies. In other words, he applied the evolutionary principles to the problems of population dynamics by proposing a genetic feedback mechanism for the determina-

line of numbers. Theoretical considerations of population regulation in a simple experimental system and in complex natural systems are quite different. In a simple situation, population self-regulation and factors governing population growth and maintenance are studied. However, in a complex situation, the influence of abiotic, adaptive, and biotic factors, population movement toward equilibrium, survival at peak or an extremely low level, natural selection, and population dynamics must be considered.

Population dynamics deals with energy flows which govern movements of matter through a population, from the environment and back again. A population could theoretically expand indefinitely provided that food and habitat are in infinite supply. Since nature is limited, something tends to adjust the population accordingly, i.e. for the death of some individuals reduces the ability of survivors to obtain better resources (Lloyd, 1968; Nicholson, 1953; Pearl, 1926; Chapin, 1969). To achieve population balance, the controlling factors should act more intensely against an average individual when the population density is high, and less severely against the individual when the density is low (Nicholson, 1953, 1954). Nicholson (1958) illustrated the relationships between population density and environmental factors, but did not indicate how these factors govern population balance.

This chapter will be concerned with the influence of plant condition on plant population density. The host vineberry plant affects spider mites not only by providing them directly or indirectly with food, but also by detaching a leaflet with a feeding abnormality. Consequently, under sufficient, the condition of the vineberry plants could signifi-

spider mite population density to spider mites

The question of what is the maximum pest load that can be tolerated by a strawberry plant without change in host plant condition is important to understanding the population dynamics of spider mites. A 'pest load capacity' is defined as the maximum number of pests (spider mites) that plants can support without negatively affecting plant condition, while 'tolerance capacity' is the maximum number of pests that can be supported without influencing the maximum rate of improvement of plant condition, i.e. growth of new parts. Thus the plant condition improves at the same rate when a plant is free of pests as when the plant has pests but below the tolerance level. The term of 'pest load capacity' differs from the 'harvesting capacity' of Verhulst (1928) and Ford and Ford (1938). They assumed that the actual rate of increase per individual was a logistic function and was regulated by population density through decreasing 'population increase rate' and increasing 'population death rate.' Actually this self regulation of intrinsic rate of increase seldom occurs in natural conditions, because the status of the food supplies are limiting reproducing plants. The limitation of food supply does regulate the intrinsic rate of increase to affect the pest population density. In this chapter, the relationships of the 'pest load capacity' and tolerance capacity' of strawberry plants are discussed.

Spider mite and strawberry

The experimental design and materials and methods used were described previously for Experiment 14 in Chapter 5. The plant condition, number of leaves per plant, responded to the spider mite population densities after a lag, and was best described by a four-week delay function. With

this is used, the response of plant condition at week t , $Q(t)_i$ to the pest regime size at weeks $t-4$, $t-3$, $t-2$, and $t-1$ are discussed in the following model

Multiple regression model of pest load of secondary plant

$$Y_1 + Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 (X_1 \times X_2) + \beta_6 (X_1 \times X_3) + \beta_7 (X_2 \times X_3) + \epsilon_1$$

where

Y_1 : the number of leaves per plant lost during the pest four weeks.

Y_2 : the number of leaves per plant retained during the pest four weeks

X_1, X_2, X_3 : the effect of average influence is a new unit change of the independent variable, i.e. X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 , when all other X 's are fixed

X_1 : the natural logarithm and the logarithm of number of nitids per leaf at week $t-4$ for Y_1 and Y_2 , respectively

X_2 : the natural logarithm and the logarithm of number of nitids per leaf at week $t-3$ for Y_1 and Y_2 , respectively.

X_3 : the natural logarithm and the logarithm of number of nitids per leaf at week $t-2$ for Y_1 and Y_2 , respectively.

X_4 : the natural logarithm and the logarithm of number of nitids per leaf at week $t-1$ for Y_1 and Y_2 , respectively.

ϵ_1 : disturbance term or random error, assumed to be normally distributed with mean equal to 0 and variance equal to σ^2 .

Analysis of Variance

Analysis of Four Independent Variables (Four spider size population densities) is usually attributed to a period of four weeks (indicated that there were two multiple regression lines which showed the correlations between the dependent variables (number of leaves lost or gained) and the independent variables (number of spider mites per leaf). There are multiple regression lines are

1. When number of leaves per plant was obtained over four week period.

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{Y}_1 = & 38.32 + 7.35 X_1 + 75.43 X_2 + 345.52 X_3 + 41.43 X_4 \\ & + 0.11 (X_1 + X_2) + 337.83 (X_2 + X_3) + 645.66 (X_3 + X_4) \end{aligned} \quad (2.1)$$

$$R^2 = 0.93$$

$$F = 6.9991 \quad D\text{-value} = 30.705$$

where

Y_1 = the number of leaves lost during the past four weeks.

X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 = natural logarithm of number of mites per leaf at weeks 1-4, 1-2, 1-3, and 1-4, respectively.

If we used that the spider population density during the four weeks remained at a constant level ($1 \leq X_1 = X_2 = X_3 = X_4$), and that $Y = X_1$ (if a plant condition did not change due to the presence of the spider mite population), the 'pest load capacity' can be defined from equation (2.1) as a quadratic

$$\begin{aligned} 345.52 X^2 + 337.83 X^2 + 0.11 X^2 + (20.35 X + 345.52 X + 75.44 X + \\ 7.35 X) + 38.32 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$E: 30 x^2 - 276 20 x + 30 70 = 0 \quad (3.10)$$

$$\therefore \text{therefore} \quad x = 2.8857, \quad x^2 = 8.3082 \text{ (unit/ha)}^2$$

$$\text{or} \quad x = 3.884, \quad x^2 = 15.0754 \text{ (unit/ha)}^2$$

\therefore Thus number of leaves per plant was constant over four week period.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_2 &= -46.45 + 46.45 X_1 + 30.45 X_2 + 47.35 X_3 + 127.89 X_4 \\ &+ 20.85 (X_1 + X_2) + 20.85 (X_2 + X_3) + 21.08 (X_3 + X_4) \quad (3.11) \end{aligned}$$

$$x^2 = 86.46$$

$$F = 0.0000 \quad \text{Q-value} = 14.221$$

Where:

Y_2 : the number of leaves gained per plant during the past four weeks.

X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 : the logarithm of number of leaves per leaf at weeks 0-1, 1-2, 2-3, and 3-4, respectively.

Again, if $x = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4$, and $x_1 = 0$, the 'past leaf capacity' can be solved from equation (3.1).

$$\begin{aligned} Y_1 &= -74.45 + 46.45 x + 20.45 x + 47.35 x + 127.89 x + \\ &20.85 x^2 + 20.85 x^2 + 21.08 x^2 = 0 \\ &+ 68.85 x^2 + 129.80 x - 74.45 = 0 \quad (3.12) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{therefore} \quad x = 1.4364, \quad x^2 = 2.0633 \text{ (unit/ha)}^2$$

$$\text{or} \quad x = 0.78, \quad x^2 = 0.61 \text{ (unit/ha)}^2$$

The 'peak leaf capacity' calculated from plant condition is either approximately 30 sites per leaf from equation 5.2 with improving plant condition or approximately 11 sites per leaf from equation 5.2 with declining plant condition (Figure 11). The peak leaf level (30 sites per leaf) during the improving phase of plant condition is much higher than that of the level (20 sites per leaf) during the declining phase of plant condition. This suggests that strawberry plants can better withstand spider mite damage during leaf growth.

At the point of intercept of the two regression lines from equation 5.1 and 5.3, the number of leaves per plant gained or lost is equal (Figure 11). Therefore the value of X at this point provides a third value for 'peak leaf capacity'. This intercept is calculated as follows:

(eq(1) the spider mite population during the past four weeks is

$$\text{Plant } (1) \approx 30 - S_1 = S_2 = S_3 = S_4).$$

(eq(2) the number of leaves per plant gained and lost is equal)

$$G_1 = T_2^2.$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} 81.2 - (16 X)^2 &= 178.26 - (16 X) + 20.76 = -66.82 (\log X)^2 + \\ 125.88 (\log X) &= 94.40 \end{aligned}$$

$$94.40 - (16 \log X)^2 = 236.42 (\log X) + 52.12 = 0 \quad (5-3)$$

Derivative

$$\log X = 0.079, \quad X = 10^{0.079} \approx 1 \quad (\text{mites/leaf})$$

or

$$\log X = 0.366, \quad X = 10^{0.366} \approx 2.3 \quad (\text{mites/leaf})$$

The lower value is rejected and the spider mite density of approximately 22 mites per leaf is considered as a pest load capacity for the strawberry plant. Consequently the 'pest load capacity' of strawberry plants should always fall between 11 and 22 mites per leaf.

The maximum (optimum) rate of plant condition (number of leaves per plant gained per four weeks), solving from the first derivatives of equation 5.1a and 5.1b, can be obtained when the spider mite density is as high as 8 mites per leaf (5.1a) or 6 mites per leaf (5.1b). From the same equations, plant condition can be seen to improve but at a reduced rate when spider mite density falls below 5 or 6 mites per leaf. However, in reality, further lowering of mite density should not cause the plant condition to improve at a slower rate. Therefore spider mite densities of 5 and 6 mites per leaf are the 'tolerance capacity' of the strawberry plant when increasing and declining respectively. The 'pest load capacity' may be used to substantiate the 'carrying capacity' as a regulatory factor which adjusts or limits the population growth rate. Therefore 'pest load capacity' may be used to predict a population increase rate for pest management purposes using a population model. Constant presence of spider mite population is necessary to support the greater population, which can exert control on the spider mites that will migrate from the field later on. Based on 'tolerance capacity', spider mite populations should be maintained under this population density level instead of eliminating them in order to have no loss in plant growth or development rate.

CHAPTER 8

RELATION OF THE EQUILIBRIUM POINT OF THE FUNCTIONAL RESPONSE OF PREDATOR, *DISCHIDALUS DISCHIDILUS* (SHIMAZU) AND ITS PREY, *ALLOPHEGUS SILLIMANI*, WORM

The nonlinear function of a predator-prey system in which the populations of the two species are principally regulated by one of the species preying on the other has been depicted as an equilibrium characterized by the Lotka-Volterra equation (Lotka, 1926; Volterra, 1927; Fisher and Silliman, 1929). The equation is mathematically hypothesized under a simplified predator-prey system, comprising a species population of predator-prey, and a linked plant (or a linked quantity of food resource) in a disturbed or confined space. If populations of a time series, predator at generation t (P_n) and prey at generation $t+1$ (P_{n+1}), in a confined system are plotted in a phase diagram (in two-dimensional coordinate), the solutions of the Lotka-Volterra equation are closed trajectories (line connecting points in time) around the equilibrium point (Smith, 1933; Smith and Townsend, 1955; May, 1959, 1962, 1964). A stable limit cycle is like a stable equilibrium point except that the trajectory spirals in toward a closed orbit instead of toward a single point. When disturbed, either the stable limit cycle or the stable equilibrium point system will tend to return to its former equilibrium. Gause (1933) plotted a phase-space diagram (in a three-dimensional coordinate for chosen substrate, prey and predator with the plotted points connected in time series) from a closed-culture of a predator-prey system and showed that the

trajectory tends to spiral toward a point or a limit cycle. An inward or outward trajectory spiraling toward a stable point or cycle is obtained when the initial population ratio and densities of predator and prey are near equilibrium, otherwise, a outward or an spiral trajectory will occur. When an initial predator-prey ratio is close to or reaches an equilibrium point or cycle, the last observation point of a time-series data set as a coordinate is closer to the center of the spiral than that of any other initial predator-prey ratios.

In this study, the connecting points in time is a phase diagram from an initial predator-prey ratio can be fitted into a spiral function by a regression model. The fit of a regression line to a set of points from this model can be used to determine which initial predator-prey ratio is the closest one to the equilibrium point or cycle. However, individual predator-prey behavior (1) the last observation point is a combination of data set as a predator (P_{t_k}) and prey (P_{t_k}) coordinate is not necessarily located on the origin of a coordinate and (2) the formula for the "spiral of Archimedes" used in this study either centers or reaches from the origin of the coordinate (Barnes, 1949). Therefore, the origin of the coordinate has to correlate with a hypothetical spiral center of an observed data set from one of the initial predator-prey ratios. Since the hypothetical spiral center is unknown, a gravity center of the observed points is characteristics of each initial predator-prey ratio is used in this study. The gravity center is the point which can be calculated from the time-series data set points and which represents those points better in stability than any original point of observation. Therefore in an initial predator-prey ratio the values of observation

points on W_{pre} plotted against W_{post} of a time-series can be transformed from the origin of coordinate to the new origin of coordinate. The gravity center of an initial predator-prey cycle is used to be the origin of the new coordinate.

The formula for the "spiral of Archimedes" is $r = k\theta$, where r is the radius of a spiral from any point on the trajectory to the origin of coordinate, k is constant, and θ is the angle between the radius and the direction of the coordinate (Figure 14). As indicated in Chapter 3, the spider and its predator complete their life cycles in about one week. Therefore the response of the prey to the predator with a one-week delay is the generation difference between population density of predator and prey. In this study, the coordination was determined by population density of *T. arizonae* at week n (W_{pre}^n) and population density of *B. pennsylvanica* at week n (W_{post}^n). From the mathematical calculation, r and θ can be obtained for corresponding points of a set of data for any initial predator-prey cycle. From the "spiral of Archimedes" the θ (angle between radius and direction) is assumed to be the independent variable, and r is the dependent variable. Based on this assumption, a regression model, either a linear or a non-linear polynomial equation, can be used to fit a set of points in an initial predator-prey cycle. The estimated regression line along the curved initial predator-prey cycles that results in the best fit of the spiral function is then determined by the highest value of R-square.

The best fitting regression model is used to predict the almost equilibrium point or limit circle of the corresponding initial predator-prey cycle can reach equilibrium after several generations. The purpose

of this study then is to provide data and a sound basis for an ecological theory to predict population densities and establish release ratios in a biological control strategy. A delay functional response (i.e. response of prey to predator with a generation difference, is substituted for functional response (Solomon, 1949, 1953, Holling, 1959) in this study to explain the predator-prey system.

Materials and Methods

The initial predator-prey ratios in this study included 1:2, 1:4, 1:8, 1:16, 1:32, 1:64, and 1:128. Population densities of predator and prey in plots with different initial predator-prey ratios, i.e. the ratios between predators released into the plots and prey already present in the plots, were established weekly for the weeks for the first five ratios and for six weeks for the latter two ratios.

The weekly predator-prey ratio plotted against time (week) by the traditional approach to show an equilibrium point (Figure 12). The data were transformed (N_t , T_{t+1}) and the delay density dependent function with phase-space-diagram (Cassidy, 1998; Ray, 1994) were used to determine which initial predator-prey ratio lay closest to the equilibrium value. The original population values for predator and prey were then transferred to plot both populations in a phase diagram as in diagrams 1 and 2.

$$(1) \quad N_t \quad \text{[transformed values for population density of predator]} \\ = \ln[(\text{No. of predators per leaf at week } t) \times 10 + 1]$$

$$(2) \quad T_{t+1} \quad \text{[transformed values for population density of prey]} \\ = \ln[(\text{No. of prey per leaf at week } t + 1) \times 100 + 1]$$

The average life span of the spider mite, I , = from egg to egg, is about 4-5 days. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the predator and prey in week t and in week $t + 1$ are considered a generation apart, although in reality both populations have overlapping generations. The transformed value for predator density at week t (\overline{P}_t) was plotted against the transformed value of prey density at week $t + 1$ (\overline{N}_{t+1}) and the resultant points for consecutive weeks fitted to a phase series (Figure 10). An inward trajectory spiral shows that the initial predator-prey ratio is altered to the equilibrium point or limit cycle. This system is, therefore, quite different from the density dependent system of Smith (1958, 1960), but is identical to a delay density dependent system (Holling, 1959; Solow, 1960; Verity, 1967; Verity & El-Sayed, 1974).

In order to fit the "spiral of Archimedes," the values of the three points were transformed from the origin of coordinate (0,0,0) to a new position, i.e. to the gravity center (0 (\overline{N}_1 , \overline{P}_{t-1})) (Figure 10). Therefore the radius (\overline{r}) from any point on the trajectory to the new spiral center and the angle ($\overline{\theta}$) between \overline{r} and abscissa can be calculated as follows:

$$\overline{r} = \sqrt{\overline{r}_1^2 + \overline{r}_2^2} = \overline{r} + \overline{r}_2 \cos (\overline{\theta} - \overline{\theta}_2) \quad (1)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\theta} &= \overline{\theta}_2 + \overline{r} + (\overline{\theta} - \overline{\theta}_2) \\ &= \overline{\theta} + \overline{r} \\ &= \overline{\theta} + \overline{r} = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\overline{r} \sin (\overline{\theta} - \overline{\theta}_2)}{\overline{r}} \right) \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

Then the equations for the basic spiral, with its center at the new origin of coordinates, used for the regression model is

$$\bar{r} = a \bar{\theta} \quad (6.3)$$

where \bar{r} and $\bar{\theta}$ are defined as in Figure 1b and a is a constant. Equation (6.3) satisfies the hypothesis of the spiral that \bar{r} is the function of $\bar{\theta}$. Therefore the regression model can be applied to test which observation points among the initial position-pump orbits is closest to the equilibrium point or stable circle.

Other than the linear regression model, there are regression models with higher order polynomial equations that also have the characteristics of a spiral trajectory but whose angle of trajectory first increases faster and approaches an equilibrium point (spiral center) quicker than that of lower order polynomial equations.

The regression models discussed below are used to determine which initial position-pump orbits best fit the desired conditions.

Model B: Linear regression model,

$$\bar{r} = \bar{r}_0 + \bar{r}_1 \bar{\theta} + \bar{r}_2 \quad (6.4)$$

where

\bar{r} = square root of $\phi^2 \bar{\theta}^2 + \bar{\theta}^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \bar{r}$, \bar{r}_0 (1-a) the radius from a point of spiral to its center,

\bar{r}_1 = the average response when $\bar{\theta} = 0$,

\bar{r}_2 = the average influence of one unit change in $\bar{\theta}$

$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2}$ = the ratio between \bar{r} and distance of a coordinate of $\bar{\theta}$ to \bar{r}_0 -axis, $\bar{r}_0 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2}$, and \bar{r}_1 -axis, $\bar{r}_1 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2}$.

ϵ_1 = the disturbance term or random action, assumed to be normally distributed with mean equal to 0 and variance equal to σ_1^2 .

Model B. Quadratic regression model.

$$\bar{T} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{L} + \beta_2 \bar{L}^2 + \epsilon_1 \quad (B.5)$$

where \bar{T} , β_0 , β_1 , \bar{L} , and ϵ_1 are the same as described in Model A.

Model C. Cubic regression model.

$$\bar{T} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{L} + \beta_2 \bar{L}^2 + \beta_3 \bar{L}^3 + \epsilon_1 \quad (C.6)$$

where \bar{T} , β_0 , β_1 , \bar{L} , and ϵ_1 are the same as described in Model A.

Model D. Multiple nonorthogonal regression model.

$$1. \quad \bar{T}^2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{L} + \beta_2 \bar{T} + \epsilon_1 \quad (D.7)$$

$$2. \quad \bar{T}^2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{L} + \beta_2 \bar{T} + \beta_3 \bar{L}^2 + \epsilon_1 \quad (D.8)$$

where \bar{T} , \bar{L} , β_0 , β_1 , and ϵ_1 are the same as described in Model A.

Equations 4-6, 8-9, and 10-12 were set up to test the stable equilibrium point when population increases over (T_m) is $0 < r_m < 2$ (Gray, 1988).

Analysis and Discussion

The traditional approach of plotting predator-prey ratio against the time for the equilibrium study is shown in Figure 12. There is no small differential equation available to describe this functional re-

space of predator-prey ratio near the vicinity in order to determine which predator-prey ratio the closest to the equilibrium point. The regression analysis for the selection of the initial predator-prey ratio that is closest to the equilibrium point or their circle depends upon the transformed data, transformed origin of coordinates and spiral function as shown in Appendix B and Figure 10. The results of the regression analysis of different initial predator-prey ratios are listed in Table 3. Linear and semi-polynomial regression lines are significant at either a 0.01 or 0.05 level by the F -test. The highest R -square values found in linear, quadratic, and cubic regression line are 0.367, 0.455, and 0.500, respectively. The first two highest R -square values of Model A, the linear regression line, are found in 1:125 and 1:120 initial predator-prey ratios, but the highest R -square value of the other four regression models are found for the 1:125 ratio (Table 3). However, the R -square value of the regression line for Model A of 1:120 predator-prey ratio is only 0.367. This value is too small to indicate that the variability in the data can be adequately explained by this regression line, i.e. the least squares estimated regression line can only account for approximately 36.7% of the total variance. The statistical least fitting (highest R^2) regression lines among the tested initial predator-prey ratios over all the discussed results occurred with the 1:125 by Models B, C, and D.

An R -square value of 0.504 ($P = 0.0001$) is found in the 1:125 initial predator-prey ratio by Model C for the transformed data sets between $T0_1$ and $T0_{125}$. Based on the R^2 value the initial predator-prey ratio in this study which can reach the equilibrium point or

limit cycle with a spiral trajectory is 1:100. Therefore, the nature of the equilibrium point or limit cycle of the P. gossypii and E. gossypi system, is at a predator-prey ratio of 1:100. The R-square value of the regression line of 1:100 in Models A and B (0.95, 0.98, respectively) is not sufficiently large enough to accept either, but in Model C the R-square is 0.99. In this predator-prey system the trajectory of the spiral approaches the center very rapidly, i.e. a cubic function, instead of a linear or a quadratic function. Since the highest frequency value (0.001) is observed from 1:100 predator-prey ratio in Model C for the regression line, the response of the prey population density can be explained as a generation or non-gest delay functional response to the predator, P. gossypii, population density. The initial predator-prey ratio of 1:100 can reach or be near the equilibrium point or limit cycle. When the predator, P. gossypii, is used as a biological control agent to control undesired spider mite, the number of predators released must be dependent upon the density of prey in the field. Under natural conditions, the actual number of predators released is not directly dependent on the host spatial volume ratio of predators, but is dependent on the difference between the host initial release ratio and the equilibrium point. However, there should be much more intensive study of this hypothesis.

CHAPTER 7
ADAPTIVE RESPONSES IN RESISTANT SPIDER WIFE, HYMENOPTERID
PARASITIC WORM, AND FLORIDA STINKBOMB PLANT

The resistance of spider wives to parasitoids was first reported by Smith et al. [1947]. When resistance has been discovered from two different populations, one is the Mendelian mechanism which include insensitivity of chaperoninase and decreased sensitivity caused by detoxifying of introduced molecules [Bittick et al., 1974, Bittick, 1975]. The second is the question of occurrence of spider populations, such as the resistance gene in the gene pool and how it was distributed and selected for [Bittick, 1975]. Foster [1968] reviewed the mechanisms of resistance against parasitoids and described six types of chemical resistance. Physiological mechanism of resistance were classified on the basis of behavior, structure, production, storage, utilization, detoxification, and decreased sensitivity by Bittick [1975]. Taylor and Smith [1958] demonstrated the genetic basis of resistance and indicated that resistance to parasitoids was probably based on a single factor in their Kentucky 1 colony of parasitized spider wife, Detritivorous aculeatus. Andrew and Foster [1968] suggested that the resistance to parasitoids was also based on a single factor. The requirements for the development and maintenance of resistance include high propagation potential [Bittick et al., 1974], cross fertilization and sexual reproduction [Bittick, 1968, Day and Williams, 1970], high mutation rate [Bittick, 1975, Heller and Van Zee,

1953), and isolation or semi-isolation of the clones selected for resistance (Dietrich, 1953).

The resistant genes of *T. arizonae* in arthropodophagous appear to reside at the same locus or are closely linked loci (Dietrich, 1953). Foster and Jones (1964) reported that susceptible mites demonstrated the greatest overall reproductive capacity in that they deposited the most eggs, and had the greatest percentage of viable eggs and the shortest life cycle. Dietrich (1953) demonstrated that by crossing resistant females and susceptible males with a under selection pressure would result in a population of susceptible spider mite that demonstrated decreasing resistance to disease in later generations.

An interesting topic is the measurement of resistance increases rate of spider mite field populations under low chemical selection pressure as well as the resistance decrease rate. Bennett et al. (1955) showed that reversion to susceptibility of spider mite to diafenthiol was very slow. In this study the increase in the rate of resistance and the rate of reversion to susceptibility of transplanted spider mite was tested to either a chlorinated hydrocarbon, diafenthiol, or an arthropodophagous, mite, under low selection pressure, which is the weekly chemical application with 10_{100} concentration. As indicated in Chapter 3, the spider mite completed the life cycle in about one week. Therefore it is possible to say that selection pressure of the chemical is acting on each generation of spider mite.

Materials and Methods

The materials and methods are as described in Experiment 1 in Chapter 3.

Resistance and Susceptibility

The LC_{50} of mixed and diallel in cross generations of tungrotop spider mite is listed in Tables 12 and 13. The resistance of tungrotop spider mite to both mixed and diallel increased at the highest rates (25.14% and 50.28%, respectively) in the first generation after joined to the low chemical selective as defined by tungrotopical. A total increase of about 14% in resistance to diallel and 28% in resistance to mixed had developed in seven generations of spider mites. Therefore it appeared that tungrotop spider mites developed resistance to diallel faster than to mixed.

Grandon (1974) demonstrated that the major resistance genes of some strains of tungrotop spider mites to organophosphorus reside at the same locus or are closely linked loci. The genes of tungrotop spider mite responsible for development of resistance to mixed, an organophosphate, may be the same as that to other organophosphate chemicals shown by Grandon (1974), and Taylor and Smith (1974). The slow resistance increase rate of spider mite population to mixed in this study may be explained as follows: (1) the resistance allele is recessive, therefore heterozygosity is susceptible, (2) susceptible mites have higher overall reproductive capacity so that they deposit more eggs, and have a greater percentage of viable eggs and a shorter life cycle (Grandon and Brown, 1975).

Tungrotop spider mites reared on kidney bean leaves with 50% residue have a greater ratio of females to males and higher egg production than untreated counterparts (Hittich et al., 1974; Hittich et al., 1974) explained these phenomena as probably caused by stimulation

of small quantities of a stressor (probably a sex ratio distorted) which is responsible for the increased synthesis of RNA, which in turn accelerates sperm production which would account for the greater number of females derived from fertilized eggs. The increase in resistance rate of spider mites to acarid may be similar to the response of alfalfa with BHT (Hixorich *et al.*, 1979). A high water table, a great propagation potential and cross fertilization in each generation, which are the characteristics of an archaeanthus species, may also account for the development of resistance of two-spotted spider mites to acarid.

The reversion to susceptibility to acarid was observed in two-spotted spider mite occurred in the fourth generation (Table 10, 11). The two-spotted spider mite populations treated with acarid further reduced its resistance and did not re-develop resistance until the seventh generation (Table 10). This reversion to susceptibility to these two acaricides may be due to susceptibility mites producing more eggs with a greater percentage of viability (Bousler and Hixorich, 1981). The reduction of resistance to acarid in the fourth week may be explained by a study of Hixorich (1981), who demonstrated that under the low selection pressure of a low concentration of acarid, when an organophosphate, crosses between resistant females and susceptible males of spider mites will produce offspring with lowered levels of resistance. It is also possible that this lowered resistance is due to the resistant allele being recessive.

Reversion to susceptibility of two-spotted spider mite to acarid is apparently fast under field conditions and it is possible that the use of acarid will be valuable in a rotational spray system. The slow re-

consider the susceptibility of spider mites to diazinon, a conclusion also reached by Bennett *et al.* (1976), precludes its use in a water-based spray system for practical pest management. Since spider mites do not develop resistance to high levels of diazinon (Long and Williams 1976, 1977), it is recommended that diazinon be applied to high over-saturations for the control of spider mites.

CHAPTER 8
RESPONSE OF THIRPS, SPIDER MITE, AND WEEVIL POPULATIONS TO MANAGEMENT

The damaged spider mite, a major pest of Florida strawberries, feeds on leaves and fruits and causes loss of abscisic acid, destruction of leaf tissues, and plant stunting, followed by loss of plant quantity and quality. The only pest management practice recommended is the use of chemicals to suppress the development of spider mite populations. The first recommended chemical was sulfur (Brooks and Kalsbeek, 1950). As each material failed to adequately control population growth, it was subsequently replaced by diazinol, parathion (Brooks and Kalsbeek, 1950), trichlor, and sulfox (Schubert, 1958, 1959, 1960).

Satisfactory management of the mite populations is caused by inadequate coverage, presence of mites during the harvest when frequent fruit picking makes the use of insecticides risky, and by the decreased effectiveness of control chemicals in field populations. Schubert (1958) provided data which suggested that populations in Florida maintain resistance to one or more of the following chemicals: sulfur, chlorpyrifos, and organophosphates. This resistance of damaged spider mite to insecticides was also well documented from other areas (Brooks and Proulx, 1948; Carlson, 1956; Kalsbeek, 1951, 1952; Griesbach et al., 1954; Wells and Hanlon, 1953; Day and Williams, 1959; Roberts et al., 1955; Taylor and Smith, 1961). Day (1956) demonstrated better suppression of field spider mite populations with cyclic methidathion, malathion, and organotin derivatives than with organophosphates.

acetic acid, chlorinated hydrocarbons or formaldehyde acaricides. It is suggested that resistance was present in the Florida population.

The repeated and prolonged use of a treatment as long as it is still effective has led to the development of resistance to several chemicals. The presence of cross resistance to similar compounds within an insecticide class has not in compounds of other classes was documented (Quinn, 1946, Ellertsen, 1955, Day and Hollander, 1956). Compounds of different chemical classes may provide better population suppression when used alternately or in combination than when either alone is used alone.

Resistance of Florida mosquitoes to chlorinated hydrocarbons (Table 10) and to organophosphate acaricides (Table 11) in populations of spider mites in Florida (Day, 1955, Hollander, 1956) is discussed in Chapter 2. This evidence has led to research for more effective use of the registered acaricides which include those to which resistance is apparent.

Consequently, experiments were conducted to determine if spider mite populations can be more effectively suppressed when a chlorinated hydrocarbon (Dieldrin[®]), an organophosphate (Guthion[®]), an organotin (Duster[®]), or a sulfide (Guthion[®]) are used alone repeatedly, or when two or three combinations are used.

Materials and Methods

Materials and methods are as described in Experiment 3 in Chapter 2.

Results and Discussion

Development of Resistance of Spider Mite Populations to Acaricides

The first application of acaricide reduced the population more effectively than subsequent applications (Table 12). A possible explanation is that after being exposed to the selection pressure of the first

spray of either diazinon or malathion, the population of spider mites rapidly developed their resistance to these acaricides. This resulted in lower effectiveness of these chemicals to the mites in later generations [Table 10].

Plots treated with a mixture of diazinon (2C) and malathion (2D) were at a lower rate than other used ones, had greater reduction of seasonal average spider mite density and greater daily percentage mortality than plots treated with a higher rate of malathion (3D) alone but not diazinon (2C) [Table 12, 13]. The initial effect of malathion (3D), diazinon (1.5 C), and a combination of the two acaricides on spider mite populations was the highest among all tested chemicals [Table 12, 14, 15]. Malathion (3D) and malathion (2D) were the least effective chemicals for suppressing seasonal spider mite populations [Table 10]. This high initial and low seasonal effects of malathion (1.5 D) on spider mite populations density may be due to the quick action and high concentration of the chemical.

Influence of Acaricides on Spider Mite Predators: Based on Population

In all cases except those plots treated with either malathion (3 D) or a combination of diazinon (1.5 C), malathion (2 D) and beta (30 WP), the reduction of spider mite population densities to the lowest level was at three to five days after treatment, followed by an increase in population densities (Figure 13, Table 16, 17, 18). It is hypothesized that the effect of the chemicals in suppressing spider mite populations probably lasted for only three to five days. In plots treated with malathion (30 WP), diazinon (33 WP), and their combination, spider mite population density first increased for one to three days after the spray [Table 14, 15, 19], and then decreased (Figure 14, 5, 6, Table 16, 17,

III). However, in plots treated with diafotol (I & II) spider mite population density first decreased for three days and then increased until it peaked at day six after application (Figure 11a). In both plots treated with diafotol (aP) and diafotol (II) the population densities of spider mites decreased from the sixth to eighth day after treatment (Figure 11a, 11b). Diafotol (II) proved superior to diafotol (aP) (Table II, 12) in suppressing seasonal development of spider mite populations and in quickly killing a large number of spider mites. This difference in performance could result from the better application characteristics of its insoluble concentrate.

Effects of Acaricides and Their Combinations

There was no phytotoxicity observed in tested strawberry plants and all tank mix combinations of the acaricides appeared to be phytotoxicity compatible. Seasonal spider mite populations varied greatly in experimental III. However, all of the treatments, except those of diafotol (aP) and mite (II), provided better suppression of seasonal average spider mite populations than the controls (Table 12).

Combinations containing lower rates of all three classes of acaricides provided suppression of seasonal population density which was comparable to either diafotol (II) or mite (aP) used alone at their highest rate (Table 12). The use of combinations of diafotol (aP) or mite (II) with mite (aP) resulted in significantly greater population suppression for the entire season than that resulting from diafotol (aP) or mite (II) used alone at greater concentrations (Table 12). However, the use of a combination of lower rates of diafotol (II), mite (II), and mite (aP), and that of lower rates of mite (II) and mite (aP), provided a prompt control of spider mite populations at the beginning of the

chemical groups [Table II, III]. These results may be due to the following factors: (1) the probability of spider mite populations developing resistance to all three chemicals or to two chemicals is generally less than to any one chemical; (2) a possible synergistic effect in a mixture of two different insecticides, i.e., EC and WP; (3) antagonistic effect of these two or two chemicals [Table II, Figure 13] may result in a poorer fitted suppression of spider mite population than from either one of the chemicals used alone. The most effective among combinations of two chemicals appeared to be diafotol (WP) with malix (WP) for suppressing seasonal average population [Table II], but there is no evidence to indicate a synergistic effect [Table II, Figure 14].

Mixture of diafotol (WP) and malix (WP) was not significantly different from that of diafotol (EC) and malix (EC) in suppressing seasonal spider mite population. However, a mixture of diafotol (EC) with malix (EC) is faster and more effective than that of diafotol (WP) and malix (WP) in controlling spider mite population for short-term control purposes [Table II]. Sprays applied at the higher rate provided better suppression of spider mite population than sprays at the lower rate [Table II].

In conclusion, the diafotol 1.5 EC is the most effective acaricide among the tested acaricides for suppression of spider mite population. A combination of diafotol EC and malix EC is the only one which did not significantly show antagonistic effect among the two and three acaricide combinations. Hence the efficacy of the tested chemicals in suppressing spider mite population probably lasted for only three to five days, repeating the use of acaricides every three to five days is necessary

in bring the population down to a desired level. Weekly or less frequent applications would likely result in more suppression or an increasing population level. The use of simulators, of course (\mathcal{M}^2) with online (\mathcal{M}^1) enabled to better control or update of the population for long-term control strategies.

CHAPTER 3 CONCLUSION

The major purpose of this research was to seek pertinent information that would enable us to most effectively control or manipulate imported spider mite populations as determined at or below an economic threshold. Based on either the qualitative or quantitative information obtained, we might be able to reduce the costs of control and to modify mite damage and maintain a place in the competitive market.

From a hypothetical response model, predator release ratios in the range of 1:1 to 1:4 are recommended. However, information in predator biology has shown that the use of *E. annandalli* at a 1:14 predator release ratio resulted in the best control of spider mites as indicated by plant condition. The average time required for predators to reduce the spider mite populations to below the injury level was about ten weeks, after which the populations stayed below this level for another four weeks. In choosing integrated control methods the spider mite population density should be considered. A high predator release ratio (1:2) is required to obtain the most rapid control of spider mites at high population densities before they can cause serious damage to the host plants, but the higher predator release ratio results in a higher cost of control. Therefore, a classical control program may be included in the pest control strategy. The use of acaricide depends on the population density of the spider mites as well as the population density of predators.

thionex (1.5 EC) applied at 1.0 ml per acre is recommended for spider mite control, due to the rapid development of resistance of spider mite populations to dicofol, a combination of lower rates of dicofol (1.5 EC) and thionex (1.5 EC) is the alternative choice in controlling resistant spider mite populations. While effective mite-killing, the repeated use of acaricides on every fifth day would be the best way to suppress and to eliminate spider mite populations. However, the frequent application of chemicals would be costly and would result in higher levels of residues that would cause pollution of the environment as well as the elimination of natural enemies of the spider mites. In order to avoid these disadvantages the acaricides should be applied in an integrated program at biweekly intervals instead of five-day or one-week intervals. As an alternative to chemical control, *P. persicivorus* should be released to suppress spider mite populations to below 'tolerance capacity' or 'pest level capacity' of the strawberries. This initial release should be made between two successive chemical applications that are fourteen days apart.

External practices and other factors also influence plant condition and spider mite population density. Among the treatments tested, EM-12123 (2-4) was the most effective for the suppression of spider mite population density and in turn was the best for the plant condition. Additional ammoniac nitrate applied as fertilizer also improved plant condition. Galifondia grown strawberry seedlings exhibited better plant condition and were better able to tolerate spider mites at high population densities than were plants from other sources.

Consequently, the best pest management strategy consists of integrating biological control with soil treatment, fertilizer and plant source. This research indicated that the greatest potential lies with a Gull-lands produced plant grown in soil treated with EM-1000, and increased omnivore insects fertilized with an approximate initial release ratio of predator to prey of 1:8.

However, the timing and technique of release of *E. pergandii* and timing of chemical application depend on our ability to predict the population densities of *E. vitifera*, *E. pergandii*, and other strawberry pests and their natural enemies. This area needs to be intensively studied.

'Host load capacity', the maximum population density of spider mites that can be sustained by strawberry plants without negatively affecting plant condition, may be used to predict a population increase rate for management purposes using population simulation models. Also the maximum population density of spider mites at or below the 'tolerance capacity' can be sustained by the strawberry plant without influencing the maximum rate of improvement of plant condition. In order to control unsustained spider mite population density to below a 'tolerance capacity' (1 to 4 mites per leaf) and to practice a long-term pest management, we have to suppress the spider mite population with predators, as well as release spider mites into the field. The successful prediction of spider mites is necessary to support the predator populations, which can exert control on spider mites that will later migrate onto the field. The techniques to achieve these interactions need to be further refined.

Table 1. General responses of place acquisition and comparison within sets and *Richardson's* generalizing operation according to previous outcome ratio.

Responses	N	Transfer, outcome ratio									
		0.00	0.10	0.20	0.30	0.40	0.50	0.60	0.70	0.80	0.90
Place acquisition (Set, transfer) place	12	21.40	8.40	18.80	18.17	25.80	18.30	20.30	19.10	17.40	21.10
<i>F</i> significant											
(No. individuals)											
Set	18	18.00	10.00	11.00	16.00	20.00	18.00	17.00	21.00	20.00	20.00
active stages	26	18.00	10.00	17.00	18.00	18.00	11.00	16.00	19.00	18.00	18.00
total	34	18.00	20.00	18.00	18.00	18.00	14.00	16.00	20.00	19.00	19.00
<i>F</i> significant											
(No. individuals)											
total of ac- tive stages	26	1.00	4.00	1.00	3.00	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	—
avg. 1-4	1.16 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	1.00 (0.20)	—

1. When in the parenthesis are the probabilities of type I error.

2. Total of the check are calculated from Experiment 1b.

Table 2. Influence of infection strains and plant source on population of honeybees after infection, predators, *Phaenocarpa parvicollis*, and plant condition.

Infection	Phaenocarpa parvicollis			Honeybees			Predators		
	100% infectious	100% non-infectious	100% dead	100% infectious	100% non-infectious	100% dead	100% infectious	100% non-infectious	100% dead
I. infection ¹	3.20	16.36	16.36	3.20	16.36	16.36	3.20	16.36	16.36
II. infection ²	0.10 ^{ab}	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10
Plant condition ³ (in 100% ⁴ plant)	26.11 ^{ab}	26.10	26.10	26.10 ^{ab}	26.10	26.10	26.10	26.10	—

1. Means with double asterisks are significantly different from the means of the other infection strains level as well as from the other strains of strawberry plants ($P < 0.05$) by t-test.

2. Values followed by the same letter are not different at 5% level by least significant difference.

Table 3. Influence of predator release ratio on strawberry plants and after population density

Release ratio	Plant condition (no. leaves/yr/m ²)	$\frac{\bar{X}_{1990}}{\bar{X}_{1989}}$ population density (no. leaf/strawberry/yr/m ² /year)	$\frac{\bar{X}_{1990}}{\bar{X}_{1989}}$ population density (no. leaf/strawberry/yr/m ² /year)
1:1	10.30 ±	3.770	3.80
1:4	10.36	3.870	3.86
5:8	10.80	3.820	3.77
5:16	10.90	4.300	3.81
8:11	17.56	8.920	8.84
8:26	—	19.827	9.81
17:118	—	3.900	3.96
Control	31.56 ±	8.110 ±	—

1. These followed by the same results as the study we use significantly difference ($P = 0.05$) tested by the Bonferroni test.

Table 5. Influence of predator release ratios and doses of "lure" strawberry plants on plant densities, damaged spider mite infestation level and population density of predator, *E. decempstigma*.

Release ratio	Plant condition (no. transplants)		Plant population (no. of mites/plant)		Predator population (no. of mites/plant)	
	Control	Experiment	Control	Experiment	Control	Experiment
1:1	21.00 ± 4	17.50 ±	2.00 ±	4.25 ±	0.04 ±	0.74 ±
1:5	30.00 ±	20.50 ±	1.25 ±	3.50 ±	0.11 ±	0.50 ±
1:10	30.00 ±	50.50 ±	3.00 ±	3.50 ±	0.07 ±	0.30 ±
1:15	46.00 ±	15.50 ±	2.27 ±	13.50 ±	0.07 ±	0.50 ±
1:20	46.00 ±	15.20 ±	5.13 ±	3.00 ±	0.50 ±	0.00 ±
1:25	—	—	10.20	—	0.00	—
1:120	—	—	—	0.25	—	0.10
Control	15.00 ± 4	1.20 ± 4	5.70 ± 4	3.10 ± 4	—	—

1. Means affected by a plants indicator (44) are not significantly different from each other ($P = 0.05$) according to Bonferroni's test.

2. Plant groups were followed by the same letter at the same predator release ratio are not significantly different ($P = 0.05$) by t-test.

3. Plant groups at this predator release ratio is from plants.

Abstract: Influence of production on health and its cost estimation in sheep and goats, transported together with individual lots (2000).

Station with	Water quantities (in thousands)			Water quantities (in thousands)		
	1900-1910 in the city (100 sq. mi.)	1910-1920 in the city (100 sq. mi.)	1920-1930 in the city (100 sq. mi.)	1900-1910 in the city (100 sq. mi.)	1910-1920 in the city (100 sq. mi.)	1920-1930 in the city (100 sq. mi.)
100	31.48	31.28	32.00	13.50	14.17	14.43
100	30.71	30.50	31.00	13.40	14.00	14.50
100	30.60	30.50	31.14	13.41	14.11	14.37
100	30.30	30.20	30.50	13.10	13.40	13.70
100	30.71	30.16	31.20	13.43	13.57	14.00
100	—	—	—	—	—	—

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4. Overall means of ΔT_1 and ΔT_2 are significantly ($p < 0.001$) lower than the corresponding single mean results for sites are shown.

Table 2. Correlation coefficients among weekly population levels of *Interpretus scitiger*, *Phaenocarpa maculipes*, and plant condition.

Response	No. of <i>I. scitiger</i> in pot ¹				
	week 0	week 1	week 2	week 3	grand mean
<i>I. scitiger</i>					
week 0	0.320 [0.000]	0.165 [0.000]	0.136 [0.010]	-0.063 [0.000]	-0.003 [0.790]
week 1		0.365 [0.000]	0.375 [0.000]	0.138 [0.000]	0.005 [0.979]
week 2			0.303 [0.000]	0.363 [0.000]	0.133 [0.000]
week 3				0.355 [0.000]	0.060 [0.000]
grand mean					0.166 [0.000]
<i>P. maculipes</i>					
week 0		0.324 [0.000]	-0.007 [0.710]	-0.013 [0.894]	-0.001 [0.970]
week 1			0.393 [0.000]	-0.017 [0.710]	0.005 [0.940]
week 2				0.366 [0.000]	-0.001 [0.970]
week 3					0.363 [0.000]
grand mean					-0.001 [0.970]
Plant condition					
NO. flowers ²	-0.393 [0.000]	-0.189 [0.010]	-0.130 [0.100]	-0.305 [0.000]	-0.063 [0.000]

1. Values in the parentheses are the type I error probabilities, that is, the probability of observing the assumed correlation if the variables are not correlated.

Table 2. Correlation coefficients and probability among responses of hemiparasitoid under different populations and plant condition.

Response	No. of <i>T. pallidus</i> in fruit				
	week 4	week 3	week 2	week 1	Precedent week
No. leaves/ plant	+0.113 (0.6930)	+0.152 (0.6930)	+0.105 (0.1940)	+0.805 (0.2918)	+0.805 (0.4480)
No. <i>T. pallidus</i> in fruit					
week 4		0.188 (0.6000)	+0.803 (0.4794)	0.298 (0.6032)	0.408 (0.4950)
week 3			0.178 (0.6750)	+0.811 (0.4712)	0.317 (0.6000)
week 2				0.168 (0.6114)	+0.815 (0.4120)
week 1					0.391 (0.6000)

1. Values in the parenthesis are the type I error probabilities, that is, the probability of observing the recorded correlation if the variables are not correlated.

Table 2. Regression coefficients and construction of fits for ecological equilibria points between predator and prey population of *B. thurstoni* and *S. zealandi*.

Prey re- sponse	Equilibrium point			Equilibrium point of predator		
	$\bar{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X$	$\bar{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X + b_2 X^2$	$\bar{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X + b_2 X^2 + b_3 X^3$	$\bar{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X + b_2 X^2$	$\bar{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X + b_2 X^2 + b_3 X^3$	$\bar{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X + b_2 X^2 + b_3 X^3$
1.3	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)
1.4	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)
1.8	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)
1.16	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)
1.32	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)
1.46	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)
1.126	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)	$\hat{b}_0 = 0.166$ (n= 0.0004) $\hat{r} = 0.998$ (n= 0.0004)

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Table 10. Coefficients of resistance of suspended under ultra. Intermediate gelling, in alcohol (1:4 vol) reduction process.

Generation (batch)	σ_{10} (mm)	Increased resistance (mm)	Width of filter (mm)	Y. Coefficient of resistance of mobile phase (by one generation)	Y. coefficient of resistance of stationary phase	σ_{10} (mm)	σ_{10} (mm)
1	201.5	"	111.2 - 125.4	"	"	1.446	1.439
2	201.5	146.2	247.5 - 262.7	16.2	46.2	1.452	1.456
3	405.5	42.7	335.2 - 350.4	-11.5	15.2	2.000	2.205
3	405.5	38.2	351.8 - 400.6	1.5	16.5	2.504	2.817
4	405.5	-15.2	374.2 - 412.5	-6.1	16.5	1.370	1.389
5	405.5	26.1	427.4 - 455.6	12.1	104.5	1.500	1.504
6	405.5	17.1	382.7 - 392.6	1.1	174.2	1.470	1.481
7	275.5	11.5	405.3 - 521.6	1.5	101.5	1.377	1.370

Table 11. Development of resistance of benzoylated spider silks. Benzoylation, acylation, acetylation (h₂₄)

Iteration level	log ₁₀ (h ₂₄)	Resistance reduction (h ₂₄)	Relative time (h ₂₄)	Resistance of spider silks (h ₂₄)	Resistance of benzoylated silks (h ₂₄)	log ₁₀ (h ₂₄)
0	4.00.0	—	400.0 ± 30.0	—	—	4.00.0
1	3.00.0	100.0	300.0 ± 20.0	20.0	20.0	3.00.0
2	2.00.0	50.0	200.0 ± 10.0	10.0	20.0	2.00.0
3	1.00.0	10.0	100.0 ± 10.0	5.0	20.0	1.00.0
4	0.00.0	-10.0	50.0 ± 10.0	-10.0	20.0	0.00.0
5	0.00.0	-20.0	20.0 ± 10.0	-20.0	20.0	0.00.0
6	0.00.0	-30.0	10.0 ± 10.0	-30.0	20.0	0.00.0
7	0.00.0	0.0	0.0 ± 10.0	0.0	20.0	0.00.0

Table 10. Effect of scarifics on winter rice population density on Florida grain "Tiger" strawberries.

Treatment ¹	No. plants/m ²	In + LT rice	Average no. plants/m ² rice					Seasonal total ²
			Jan. 24	Jan. 31	Feb. 7	Feb. 24	Mar. 7	
Control	25 WP	1-0	24	33	59	12	88	61 ± 6
Refined	0-00	1-0	79	48	42	18	40	53 ± 6
Gelco	30 WP	0-5	67	80	11	18	5	180 ±
Control	1,000	1-0	70	96	4	5	4	35 ±
Control	1-0-00	0-5	24	66	24	26	23	13 ±
+ Refined	0-00	0-5						
Control	30 WP	0-0	28	23	0	13	4	15 ±
+ Refined	30 WP	0-25						
Refined	0-00	0-5	58	65	48	8	13	19 ±
+ Refined	30 WP	0-25						
Control	0-0-00	0-5						
+ Refined	0-00	0-5	106	52	13	4	20	60 ±
+ Refined	30 WP	0-10						
Check			136	102	39	12	21	60 ±

1. Scarifics were applied on January 23, 25, February 6, 26, 28, and March 6.

2. Control means followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other control means at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test and means followed by a single letter (45) are not significantly different from check mean ($P = 0.05$) by Duncan's test.

Table 1]. Effect of variables on spider after phytophagous density on "large" strawberries one day after spray.

Material	No. of plants	No. of/ plant	Density no. of/leaf ²			Corrected percentage mortality ^{3,3}		
			egg	adult/leaf	total			
Strawberry	30	MP	1.8	36 ± ± 25	±	115 ±	-4	ab
Salted	8	SS	1.8	21 ± ± 33	ab	153 ±	12	b
Gelatin	30	MP	4.5	53 ± ± 80	±	142 ±	-4	acd
Strawberry	1,000	1.8	56 ± ± 45	ab	85 ±	12	fg	
Strawberry + Gelatin	1,000	4.5	56 ± ± 33	f	142 ±	13	gh	
Strawberry	30	MP	4.5	84 ± ± 30	±	43 ±	-2	ab
+ Gelatin	30	MP	4.25					
Salted	8	SS	4.5	22 ± ± 32	b	70 ±	-3	bc
+ Gelatin	30	MP	4.25					
Strawberry	1,000	4.5						
+ Salted	8	SS	4.5	22 ± ± 48	±	120 ±	-10	±
+ Gelatin	30	MP	4.15					
Beetles	30	MP	4.5	38 ± ± 20	±	47 ±	0	±
Beetles	30	MP	4.25	46 ± ± 28	±	76 ±	0	±
Depth				124 ±	130 ±	358 ±		

T, Fisher's tests were applied on January 23

3. Corrected means followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other observed means at 5% level by Student's multiple range test, and means followed by an asterisk (*) are not significantly different from check mean. CP = 0.053 by Bonferroni's test.

$$3. \text{ Corrected percentage mortality} = \frac{T_a - T_b}{T_b} \times \frac{Q_a}{Q_b} \times 100$$

where T_a is no. of/strawberry after treatment, T_b is no. of/strawberry before treatment, Q_a is no. of/strawberry in check plots after treatment, and Q_b is no. of/strawberry in check plots before treatment.

Table 14. Effect of application on spider mite population density on "Flag" strawberries ten days after spray.

Material ¹	lb. a.i./acre	lb. a.i./acre	Average no. mites/leaf ²			Corrected percentage mortality ³
			sp.	GLC's	total	
Control	0	0.0	78 ± 5	50 ± 5	128 ±	-7 ±
Bullei	0	0.0	58 ± 5	42 ± 5	72 ±	17 ±
Delia	20	0.5	58 ± 5	52 ± 5	101 ±	-14 ±
Control	1.433	0.0	4 ±	12 ±	28 ±	81 ±
Control + bullei	0	0.0	54 ± 5	50 ±	64 ±	0 ±
Control + Bullei	20	0.5	14 ± ±	18 ±	28 ±	-7 ±
Bullei + Bullei	20	0.5	32 ± 5	50 ±	72 ±	-14 ±
Control + Bullei	0	0.0	12 ± ±	32 ±	44 ±	-46 ±
Bullei + Bullei	20	0.5	6 ±	17 ±	23 ±	-83 ±
Control	20	0.5	12 ± ±	32 ±	44 ±	-46 ±
Control	20	0.5	12 ± ±	32 ±	44 ±	-46 ±
Check			64 ±	72 ±	136 ±	

1. Materials were applied on January 22.

2. Chemical means followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other chemical means at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test, and means followed by an asterisk (*) are not significantly different from check mean ($P = 0.05$) by t-test's test.

$$3. \text{Corrected percentage mortality} = \frac{\bar{V}_k - \bar{V}_b}{\bar{V}_k} \times \frac{C_k}{C_b} \times 100$$

where \bar{V}_k is no. mites/leaf after treatment, \bar{V}_b is no. mites/leaf before treatment, C_k is no. mites/leaf in check plots after treatment, and C_b is no. mites/leaf in check plots before treatment.

Table 15. Effect of acaricides on spider mite population density on "Tingri" strawberries three days after spray.

Material ¹	In a/4000	In a/4000	Number of mites per plant			Corrected percentage mortality ^{2,3}					
			200	400	600						
Control	25	10	41	b	42	d	40	a	11	a	
Isolad	8	10	46	a	35	a	73	a	11	a	
Delise	20	10	15	a	15	d	25	a	15	b	
Control	1,440	1,0	10	b	10	a	20	b	30	b	
Control + Isolad	8	10	0,5	10	a	14	d	25	a	26	a
Control + Delise	20	10	0,5	10	b	8	a	10	b	-7	a
Isolad + Delise	20	10	0,25								
Isolad	8	10	0,5	10	d	5	a	24	b	18	b
Control	1,440	0,5									
+ Isolad	8	10	0,5	13	d	42	d	58	d	-10	d
+ Delise	20	10	0-10								
Isolad	20	10	0,5	5	b	8	a	10	a	8	d
Isolad	20	10	0,25	4	a	5	b	5	a	5	d
Check			20	a	32	a	38	a			

1) Acaricides were applied on January 25.

2) Chemical means followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other chemical means at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test, and means followed by an asterisk (*) are not significantly different from check mean ($P = 0,05$) by Bonferroni test.

3. Corrected percentage mortality = $\frac{T_b - T_a}{T_b} \times 100$ or $\frac{C_b}{C_a} \times 100$

where T_b is no. mites/plant after treatment, T_a is no. mites/plant before treatment, C_b is no. mites/plant in check plots after treatment, C_a is no. mites/plant in check plots before treatment.

Table III. - continued.

$$A_2 \text{ Deviated percentage mortality} = \frac{T_{A_2} - T_{A_1}}{T_{A_1}} \times \frac{d_{A_1}}{d_{A_2}} \times 100$$

where T_{A_2} is no. of insects/leaf after treatment, T_{A_1} is no. of insects/leaf before treatment, T_{A_1} is no. of insects/leaf in check plots after treatment, and d_{A_2} is no. of insects/leaf in check plots before treatment.

Table 17. Effect of treatments on spider silk production density on 'Flags' standardized six days after treatment.

Treatment ¹	Silk density ²								Estimated percentage recovery ³		Estimated percentage mortality ⁴	
	in m ² area	Jan 1955	no. spiders	silks/ spider	silks/ m ²	total	mean	SD	T, D		T, D	
Standard	25 m ²	1.0	45	± 35	± 100	±	25	±				
Water	8 m ²	1.0	40	± 37	± 70	±	8	±				
Water	20 m ²	2.0	30	± 20	± 50	±	20	±				
Standard	1 m ²	1.0	11	± 20	± 30	±	11	±				
Standard + Water	1 m ²	0.5	12 ± 4	± 35	± 34	±	10	±				
Standard + Water	20 m ²	0.5	4 ± 4	± 10	± 24	±	24	±				
Water + Water	8 m ²	0.5	15 ± 4	± 20	± 42	±	120	±				
Standard + Water	20 m ²	0.25										
Standard + Water	1 m ²	0.5	11 ± 6	± 30	± 31	±	15	±				
Standard + Water	20 m ²	0.10										
Water	20 m ²	0.5	17 ± 4	± 20	± 34	±	140	±				
Water	20 m ²	0.15	31 ± 4	± 20	± 31	±	244	±				

Check: 10 ± 10 ± 40 ±

1. Treatments were applied on January 22.

2. Check's mean followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other checked means at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test, and means followed by no asterisk (*) are not significantly different from check mean ($P = 0.05$) by Duncan's test.

3. Estimated percentage recovery = $\frac{X_1 - X_0}{X_0} \times \frac{C_0}{C_1} \times 100$

where X_1 is no. silks/leaf at day 1, X_0 is no. silks/leaf at day 0, C_0 is no. silks/leaf from the check plots at day 1, and C_1 is no. silks/leaf from the check plots at day 0.

4. Estimated percentage mortality = $\frac{T_0 - T_1}{T_0} \times \frac{C_0}{C_1} \times 100$

where T_1 is no. silks/leaf after treatment, T_0 is no. silks/leaf before treatment, C_1 is no. silks/leaf in check plots after treatment, and C_0 is no. silks/leaf in check plots before treatment.

Table 18. Effect of asterisks on spider mite population density on 'Flagg' mandarin orange eight days after treatment.

Material ¹	In m/	m/	Average no. mites/plant		Corrected percentage recovery ^{2,3}	Corrected percentage mortality ⁴
			before	after		
Starfel	25	m/ 1.0	22	7 31	7 83	a
Starfel	8	m/ 1.0	24	7 44	7 92	a
Starfel	25	m/ 0.5	19	7 41	14 46	a
Starfel	1.5	m/ 1.0	25	7 4	26 3	b
Starfel	1.5	m/ 0.5	21	7 40	24 4	b
+ Starfel 8	m/ 0.5					
Starfel	25	m/ 0.5	19	7 15	24 4	b
+ Delta	25	m/ 0.5				
Starfel	8	m/ 0.5	21	7 26	24 33	b
+ Delta	25	m/ 0.5				
Starfel	1.5	m/ 0.5				
+ Delta	8	m/ 0.5	25	7 28	24 36	b
+ Delta	25	m/ 0.5				
Verdex	25	m/ 0.5	26	7 18	33 1	c
Verdex	25	m/ 0.25	25	7 12	33	b
Check			22	7 44	83	a

¹ Materials were applied on January 15.

2. Starfel means followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other Starfel means at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test, and means followed by the asterisk (*) are not significantly different from check mean ($p = 0.05$) by Duncan's test.

3. Corrected percentage recovery = $\frac{R_a - R_b}{C_a} \times \frac{C_b}{C_a} \times 100$

where R_a is no. mites/plant at day a , R_b is no. mites/plant at day b , C_a is no. mites/plant from the check plots at day a , and C_b is no. mites/plant from the check plots at day b .

4. Corrected percentage mortality = $\frac{C_a - C_b}{C_a} \times \frac{R_b}{R_a} \times 100$

where R_a is no. mites/plant after treatment, R_b is no. mites/plant before treatment, C_a is no. mites/plant in check plots after treatment, and C_b is no. mites/plant in check plots before treatment.

Table 15. Effect of acaricides on daily spider mite population density on "Pope" strawberries.

Treatment ¹			No. of leaves	Average no. mites/leaf/day ²	Corrected percentage mortality ³
Check ⁴	25	SP	1.8	305 ± sd	2 sd
Endos	8	EC	1.8	137 ± sd	-4 F ₉
Endos	25	SP	0.5	312 ± sd	25 s
Check ⁴	1,400		1.8	11 s	58 s
Check ⁴	1,400		0.5	115 ± sd	15 s
+ Endos	8	EC	0.5		
Check ⁴	25	SP	0.5	61 sd	5 sd
+ Endos	25	SP	0.25		
Endos	8	EC	0.5	91 sd	-48 s
+ Endos	25	SP	0.25		
Check ⁴	1,400		0.5		
+ Endos	8	EC	0.5	121 ± sd	-4 sd
+ Endos	25	SP	0.18		
Endos	25	SP	0.5	81 sd	8 sd
Endos	25	SP	0.15	17 sd	5 sd

Check⁴ = 255 ± sd

1. Acaricide was applied on January 25.

2. Check⁴ means followed by the same letter are not significantly different from other check⁴ means at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test, and means followed by the asterisk (*) are not significantly different from check⁴ means ($P = 0.05$) by Duncan's test.

3. Average no. mites per leaf per day = $\frac{\bar{X} + \frac{1}{2}C_0C_1}{C_1}$, where \bar{X} is average no. of mites per leaf per day on treated plot, C_0 is average no. of mites per leaf per day from check plots after treatment, and C_1 is no. of mites per leaf from check plots before treatment.

4. Corrected percentage mortality = $\frac{C_0 - \bar{X}}{C_0} \times \frac{C_1}{C_0} \times 100$

where \bar{X} is no. of mites per leaf after treatment, C_0 is no. of mites per leaf before treatment, C_1 is no. of mites per leaf in check plots after treatment, and C_2 is no. of mites per leaf in check plots before treatment.

Table 10. Disposition of aerial and topographical effects of acaricides on spider mite population density on 'Tango' strawberries

Material ¹	Rate	No. mites/leaf	Average no. mites/leaf ²		Corrected percentage mortality ³		
			before	after	before	after	
Unsprayed	[a]	1.0	200	7	96	af	
Sprayed	[a]	1.0	123	a	48	af	
Sprayed	[c]	0.5	100	d	31	b	
Unsprayed	[a]	1.0	18	e	51	e	
Unsprayed + Scaled	0.5	179	d	97 (97 + 0.5/3)	18	a	23 (97 + 0.5/3)
Unsprayed ⁴ + Scaled	0.5 0.10	71	b	140 (97 + 0.5/3)	4	d	76 (97 + 0.5/3)
Sprayed ⁴ + Scaled	0.5 0.10	97	a	109 (97 + 0.5/3)	-11	f	8 (97 + 0.5/3)
Unsprayed ⁴ + Scaled + Scaled	0.5 0.5 0.10	105	d	99 (97 + 0.5 + 0.5/3)	-7	e	85 (97 + 0.5 + 0.5/3)

1. Materials were applied on January 10.

2. Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at 5% level by Duncan's multiple range test.

3. Corrected percentage mortality = $\frac{T_a - T_b}{T_b} \times 100$ or $\frac{C_a}{C_b} \times 100$

where T_a is no. mites/leaf after treatment, T_b is no. mites/leaf before treatment, C_a is no. mites/leaf in check plots after treatment, and C_b is no. mites/leaf in check plots before treatment.

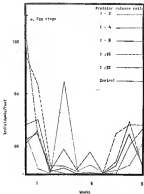
4. Means with a single or double asterisks are significantly different from the corresponding values at 5% or 1% level, respectively, by t-test.

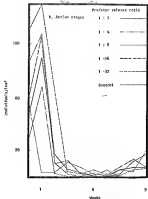
Figure 1. The experimental design and field block arrangement for population study of longspined
spider mite and the predators, *D. sticticus* and *Phytoseius* spp. in strawberry plants, a Guelph
lab. A. Department 1

b. Boardman II.

Plant species	Salicornia (100)	Halimolobos (100)	Plantain (100)	S. densiflora (200)
Species & frequency allotted	1. Halimolobos (100)	2. Halimolobos (100)	3. Plantain (100)	4. Plantain (200)

Figure 2. Effects of protein (Chitosan) release with on population density of *Hydrophilic* *Hydrophilic* a. egg stage, b. larval stage, and c. all stages.





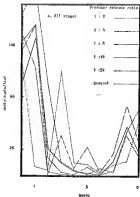
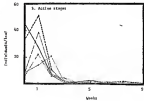
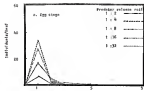


Figure 3. Effects of predator (*B. macropilis*) release ratio on predator population density: a, egg stage; b, mature stages; c, all stages.



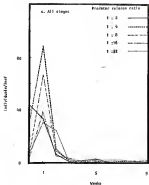


Figure 4. Response of predator-prey ratio of *Hydraulella sinensis*,
and *Ichneumonid, sp.* to predator release ratio.

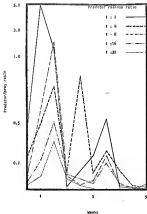


Figure 3. Effects of procterus release rates on population densities of *bagworms* after nine, *I. scabra*, and its predator, *E. maculipes*, secondary plant condition, and procterus:prey ratio. a, 1:1, b, 1:4, c, 1:8, d, 1:16, e, 1:32, f, control.

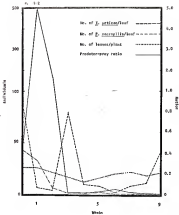
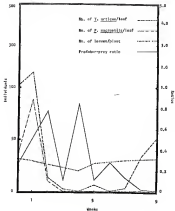
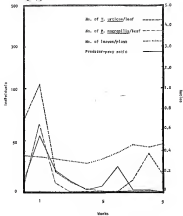


Fig. 1 (a)



a. 19



d. 1.76

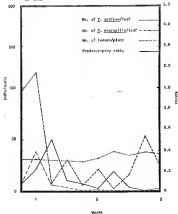
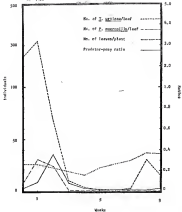


Fig. 1.30



f. Control

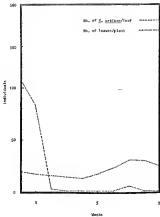
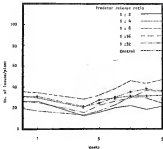


Figure 4. Response of strawberry plant densities (number of leaves per plant) to growing volume ratio.



$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

$$t \rightarrow \infty$$

Figure 7. Effects of initial predator release ratio on the limits of plant condition and optimal release density.

8. Index = (Density) average number of leaves per plant in predator increment plot - constant average number of leaves in control plot / (density average of spruce after no predator increment plot - density average number of spruce after no control plot)

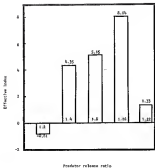




Figure 8. A simplified architectural control network among predator, prey or pest, and host plant densities.

Figure 5. Real and predicted response of average seasonal plant condition to the initial predator-prey ratio at release.

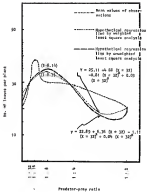


Figure 12. Response of prey population density to initial predator:prey ratio at release, with Phrynosoma macleayi and Lepidochelys olivacea being the predator and prey, respectively.

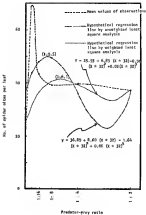
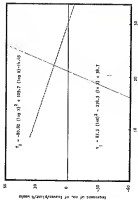


Figure 11: Normalized regression plot of improving and deteriorating plans condition per hour versus by gender with density.

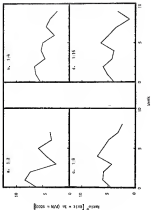


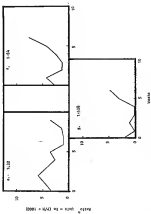
86.7 = no. of spider silks/foot

Y_1 = no. of leaves eaten per plant per 4 weeks.

Y_2 = no. of leaves eaten per plant per 4 weeks.

Figure 11. Sample 110's response gradient and peak localization to different cell-line ratios: (a) 100:0, (b) 50:50, (c) 25:75, (d) 10:90, (e) 5:95, (f) 1:99, (g) 0:100.





* Number is calculated for 10 days of producers per hectare, at pump per (high) = 10000.

Figure 11. Implication of the phase space of population of *E. muscae* at week 1 and 10 pop. *E. muscae* at week 1 & 10.

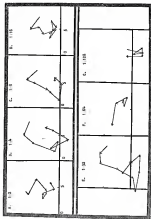


Fig. 1. Arrivals per hour at bank, 1 to 5 and 8 to 12.

Figure 1b. Graphical illustration of the translocation of origin of coordinate to simplify vector of the observed net points in an initial predator-prey ratio.

r - the length of a line (r_1) from any point P on the secondary to the origin of coordinate O (R, Q); it can be calculated from the formula of

r_1 - the length of the line (r_2) from one center of spiral O (R_1, R_{n-1}) to the origin of coordinate, it is calculated by the formula of

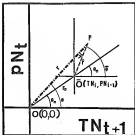
$$\sqrt{R_1^2 + R_{n-1}^2}.$$

θ - angle between horizontal axis (R_{n-1}) and r_1 . It can be obtained by formula

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} [R_1 / R_{n-1}].$$

θ_2 - angle between horizontal axis and r_2 . It can be obtained by the formula

$$\theta_2 = \tan^{-1} [R_{n-1} / R_1].$$



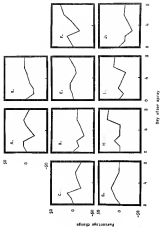
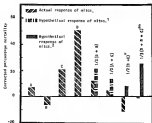
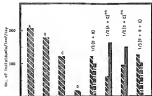


Figure 14: Comparison between actual and hypothetical responses of simulated spider when population dynamics are: (a) 100% of control (20 MP, 1 hr of/week), (b) control (20 MP, 1 hr of/week), (c) control (20 MP, 4 hr of/week), (d) control (10 MP, 1 hr of/week), and their combinations.

1. Not significantly different from actual response of spider.
2. Significantly different from actual response of spider at 95 level (a) or 99 level (ab).



Appendix 1a. Regeneration of *Leptocarpus* seedlings and 1st seedlings, *Phoradendron* naturally, with seed-suck at 10 years.

Year after seedling release (t)	Percentage of seedlings									
	W_1^0	W_{1+1}^0	W_1	W_{1+1}	W_2	W_{2+1}	W_3	W_{3+1}	W_4	W_{4+1}
0	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1	2.00	2.00	6.75	6.87	6.00	6.25	9.67	6.43	9.75	6.50
2	6.27	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.57	6.56	6.50	6.50
3	2.00	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.56	6.56	6.50	6.50
4	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.57	6.56	6.50	6.50
5	3.13	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.56	6.56	6.50	6.50
6	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.57	6.56	6.50	6.50
7	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.57	6.56	6.50	6.50
8	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.57	6.56	6.50	6.50
9	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.50	6.57	6.56	6.50	6.50

W_1^0 = 1st year of seedlings at week 1 (a 10)

W_{1+1}^0 = 1st year of seedlings at week (1+1) = 100

Appendix 10: Weekly crop-protection costs of *Helicoverpa armigera* and *Pieris rapae* susceptible

Week after protection release (d)	Proteinase-urea ratio						C120
	1:3	1:4	1:5	1:10	1:31	1:55	
0	4.01	5.32	4.83	4.34	3.43	3.76	3.40
1	3.42	4.38	4.30	3.26	4.33	4.43	4.40
2	2.43	4.43	4.39	3.33	3.39	3.39	3.18
3	2.35	4.41	4.38	4.43	4.43	3.38	3.00
4	4.35	5.46	7.40	4.11	3.44	3.44	3.00
5	5.37	5.45	6.33	4.33	3.41	4.37	3.40
6	3.44	3.39	3.38	3.34	3.30	3.49	4.33
7	3.43	4.47	3.39	3.40	3.30		
8		3.43	3.34	3.39	3.30		
9		3.38		3.47	3.41		

Appendix 2. Male effects and cross products of spatial class population per leaf on flag abundance.

Variable	Rank effect analysis within 1, 2									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Adverse rain	3.2172 (0.0000) ^{***}	3.0360 (0.0011)	3.0306 (0.0010)	2.9800 (0.0010)	2.9000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.6000 (0.0010)	2.4000 (0.0010)	2.2000 (0.0010)	2.0000 (0.0010)
Adverse	3.0000 (0.0010)	2.8172 (0.0010) ^{***}	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)	2.8000 (0.0010)
Extreme									11.0000 (0.0010) ^{***}	
Beneficial	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)	3.0000 (0.0010)
Adverse rain & adverse										11.0000 (0.0010) ^{***}
Adverse rain & plant cover										11.0000 (0.0010) ^{***}
Adverse rain & overcast										11.0000 (0.0010) ^{***}

Appendix 3. *in situ* effects and gross products of *E. macrodonta* production per leaf on *Thaps* community.

Particle	Sub stage analysis volume, l.									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Algae, <i>in situ</i>	1.1820 (0.0001)	0.1904 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	0.1908 (0.0001)	1.1188 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	0.1904 (0.0001)	0.1904 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)
Algae, <i>in situ</i>	0.0004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)	1.1004 (0.0001)
Detritus	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)
Detritus	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)
Algae, <i>in situ</i> in glass vessels	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)
Algae, <i>in situ</i> in microtubes	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)	0.0004 (0.0001)

Appendix 4. Sales effects and gross products of number of leaves per secondary plant.

Variable	Leaf after production of leaves 1-3					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Relative weight	0.0007 (0.0004)	1.1800 (0.0004)	0.0001 (0.0001)	0.0000 (0.0001)	0.0000 (0.0001)	0.0001 (0.0001)
Stomach	0.0001 (0.0001)	0.0007 (0.0001)	1.0001 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)	1.0001 (0.0001)
Spores						
Spore/leaf	1.1800 (0.0004)	1.0001 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)	1.0001 (0.0001)
Relative weight of stomach						
Relative weight of plant, spores						
Relative weight of constitutive						

Abstract

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BIOSKETCHAL SUMMARY

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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


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